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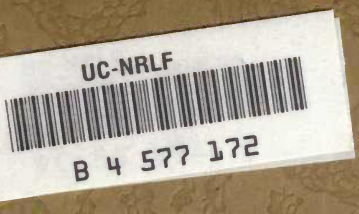

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MONOGRAPHS ON BIOCHEMISTRY

EDITED BY

R. H. ADERS PLIMMER, D.Sc.

AND

F. G. HOPKINS, M.A., M.B., D.Sc., F.R.S.

MONOGRAPHS ON BIOCHEMISTRY.

THE DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT POSITION OF BIOLOGICAL CHEMISTRY. By F. Gowland Hopkins, M.A., M.B., D.Sc., F.R.S.

THE NATURE OF ENZYME-ACTION. By W. M. Bayliss, D.Sc., F.R.S.

THE CHEMICAL CONSTITUTION OF THE PROTEINS. By R. H. Aders Plimmer, D.Sc.

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THE FATS. By J. B. Leathes, D.Sc.

THE NATURE

OF

ENZYME ACTION

BY

W. M. BAYLISS, D.Sc., F.R.S.

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GENERAL PREFACE.

THE subject of Physiological Chemistry, or Biochemistry, is enlarging its borders to such an extent at the present time, that no single text-book upon the subject, without being cumbrous, can adequately deal with it as a whole, so as to give both a general and a detailed account of its present position. It is, moreover, difficult, in the case of the larger text-books, to keep abreast of so rapidly growing a science by means of new editions, and such volumes are therefore issued when much of their contents has become obsolete.

For this reason, an attempt is being made to place this branch of science in a more accessible position by issuing a series of monographs upon the various chapters of the subject, each independent of and yet dependent upon the others, so that from time to time, as new material and the demand therefor necessitate, a new edition of each monograph can be issued without re-issuing the whole series. In this way, both the expenses of publication and the expense to the purchaser will be diminished, and by a moderate outlay it will be possible to obtain a full account of any particular subject as nearly current as possible.

The editors of these monographs have kept two objects in view: firstly, that each author should be himself working at the subject with which he deals; and, secondly, that a *Bibliography*, as complete as possible, should be included,

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in order to avoid cross references, which are apt to be wrongly cited, and in order that each monograph may yield full and independent information of the work which has been done upon the subject.

It has been decided as a general scheme that the volumes first issued shall deal with the pure chemistry of physiological products and with certain general aspects of the subject. Subsequent monographs will be devoted to such questions as the chemistry of special tissues and particular aspects of metabolism. So the series, if continued, will proceed from physiological chemistry to what may be now more properly termed chemical physiology. This will depend upon the success which the first series achieves, and upon the divisions of the subject which may be of interest at the time.

R. H. A. P.
F. G. H.

PREFACE.

THIS short monograph is based upon lectures given at various times in University College, London, and this fact may serve as the excuse for what some may regard as too definite a position with respect to certain disputed questions. It is, I venture to think, preferable to take a definite point of view, rather than to leave the study of the subject in a state of chaos. At the same time, one must always be prepared to correct one's views when evidence is brought against them. I have endeavoured not to slur over difficulties, where such really exist, as also to indicate the existence of points of view contrary to my own. It is quite possible, however, that, by inadvertence or ignorance, important facts may have been omitted.

Certain subjects of considerable interest in connection with the theory of the action of enzymes, such as the properties of colloids and the laws of adsorption, which were dealt with in some detail in the lectures, are here only treated in their immediate bearing on the facts under discussion.

No attempt has been made to put forward a complete bibliography in the list of literature at the end. This contains only those writings which have a more or less direct bearing on the subject and which are referred to in the text. In this list I have added, after each reference, the page of the text

in which it is made use of, so that the insertion of names of authors in the general index is rendered unnecessary.

The detailed description of the properties of the large number of specific enzymes already known finds no place in this monograph, which confines itself to general properties more or less common to all enzymes.

W. M. B.

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CHAPTER I.

CATALYSIS IN GENERAL.

ONE of the most striking characteristics of the chemical changes taking place in living organisms is the ease with which bodies of a highly stable nature are split up. Glucose, for example, is oxidised to carbon dioxide and water, egg-white is hydrolysed to amino-acids. Under ordinary laboratory conditions, powerful reagents, such as chromic acid and boiling hydrochloric acid, are necessary to effect these decompositions.[1] This fact, which is, of course, familiar to all workers in bio-chemistry, was, at an early date in the history of the science, especially called attention to by Schönbein (142, p. 344).

Phenomena of a similar kind are, however, known to chemists to take place in the laboratory, and such reactions are known as "catalytic" reactions. They are increasing in number and importance every day. Oxygen and hydrogen, for instance, at ordinary temperatures combine so slowly that the production of water cannot be detected, the application of a flame or electric spark being requisite. But the presence of a minute quantity of finely divided platinum is sufficient to cause combination to take place at room temperature. Again, the oxidations effected by hydrogen peroxide proceed in many cases at a very slow rate by themselves, but can be enormously accelerated by traces of iron or manganese, as in the well-known method of Fenton (62). Another case of interest in connection with enzyme-action is the hydrolysis of cane-sugar by acids (ionic hydrogen).

The most profitable way of studying the problem before us is to consider first of all the essential characters of catalysis, as manifested by reactions where the bodies concerned are of known chemical composition.

For this purpose we may conveniently divide reactions into two classes.

I. There are a large number of reactions which are practically instantaneous, those between ions forming the chief part of this class. When a chloride is added to a solution of silver nitrate, a precipitate of silver chloride falls at once. Or, when a strong acid is neutralised by a strong base, the union takes place at once, as we know by the regular titration methods.

II. On the other hand, there are reactions, like the saponification of esters by caustic alkali, which take a measurable time to arrive at their final state.

Now, a "catalyst" is a body which alters the rate of reactions of this latter class (see Ostwald [127, i., p. 515]). The change may be either

[1] Note A at end of book.

in the direction of acceleration or of retardation, and the reaction may be one that, by itself, either proceeds rapidly or so slowly that it requires special proof to show that it is taking place at all. It is especially to the acceleration of this latter kind of reaction that the name of catalysis is usually given, although, in theory, any change of the rate of any reaction by the addition of a foreign substance comes under the same category.

As examples of catalysed reactions may be mentioned: the inversion (hydrolysis) of cane-sugar by acid (hydrion), the numerous combinations effected by the catalytic agency of platinum in particulate condition, and oxidations by hydrogen peroxide accelerated by ferrous or manganous salts. As a case of slowing of a reaction by a foreign body I may refer to the stopping of the slow oxidation of phosphorus in air by a trace of ether vapour; this kind of action is called "negative catalysis".

There are certain phenomena which, at first sight, might be confused with those of catalysis, but which must be carefully distinguished from them. A mechanical model will serve to make this clear. If a brass weight of, say, 500 grammes be placed at the top of an inclined plane of polished plate-glass, it will be possible to find a slope of the plane such that the weight will slowly slide down. This represents any reaction taking time to complete. If now the bottom of the weight be oiled (oil = catalyst) the rate of its fall will be greatly increased. We see that, in either case, the weight, if placed at the top of the plane, does not remain there, but, sooner or later, reaches the bottom. It may, however, be kept at the top by some kind of catch or trigger arrangement, in which case it will remain there indefinitely until the catch is released. The amount of energy lost by the weight in its fall, being the product of its weight and the vertical height from which it has fallen, is in no way affected by the work required to remove the obstacle preventing its fall, nor is the rate at which it falls when set free. A typical instance of such a "trigger" action is that of supersaturated solutions, which remain for any length of time unchanged unless infected with a crystal. It has, moreover, been shown by B. Moore (119) that the rate at which the solidification of supercooled glacial acetic acid moves along a tube is independent of the quantity of crystals placed at one end to start the process. Not so with true catalytic action; although the work done by our sliding weight is in no way affected by the amount of catalyst (oil) used, the rate of the fall is within limits directly proportional to it, and this is a property of catalysts in general.

It cannot be expected that a rough model of this kind would show all of the characteristics of catalytic phenomena, but there are two instructive points shown by it in addition to those already spoken of. The first is the disappearance of the catalyst by sticking to the glass as the weight slides down. An analogous phenomenon is often met with in catalytic processes, as will be seen later. The second point is one of importance with regard to certain enzyme-actions; it consists in the fact that, although the presence of the catalyst neither adds to nor subtracts from the total energy change in the reaction, the form of this energy may be altered. When the weight falls slowly by itself, nearly the whole of the energy appears as heat due to friction along the glass plane, so that the weight arrives at the bottom with very little kinetic

energy; on the contrary, when oiled, nearly the whole of the energy is present in the weight at the end of its fall as kinetic energy, very little friction having been met with in its descent.

From what has been said it follows that a catalyst is merely capable of changing the rate of a reaction already in progress. In opposition to this it may reasonably be said that a reaction does sometimes seem to be initiated. Such a case is that of a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen gases caused to combine by spongy platinum. Now there are reasons for the belief that an extremely slow combination is taking place at ordinary temperatures without catalysis. One thing to be considered in reference to this belief is the enormous acceleration of chemical reactions by rise of temperature, the majority being about doubled by a rise of 10° C. In this way a reaction having a velocity of 1 at 0° would reach one of 2 at 10°, 4 at 20° and $1 \times 2^{10} = 1{,}024$ at 100°. At the temperature of 500° there is appreciable formation of water in the case in point, and Bodenstein (30, pp. 694 and 681) has shown that, if the velocity at 689° be represented by 163, that at 482° has already sunk to 0·28; so that at room temperature the velocity would be quite incapable of detection by chemical means, since centuries would be needed to produce a fraction of a milligramme of water. Grove's gas battery also proves that the two gases are not in equilibrium at ordinary temperatures, since electrical energy is obtained by their slow combination. Other cases will be better considered when discussing catalysis by enzymes.

Several other properties of catalysts must be referred to. They do not appear chemically combined with the final products of the reaction, which are, as a rule, the same as those of the non-catalysed reaction. They are found at the end unchanged, except in those cases in which they are destroyed by subsidiary reactions, such as the nitric acid in the old chamber process of sulphuric acid manufacture.

Since the addition of a catalyst only serves to hasten a result which would ultimately be arrived at by itself, it follows that the effect of a small quantity of catalyst is, in the end, the same as that of a larger quantity, if sufficient time be allowed. This is often in practice a useful criterion in deciding whether a result produced by the addition of a body is due to a chemical reaction following the laws of combining proportion, or to a catalytic process. In the first case the amount of the new products formed will be in exact ratio to the quantity of the body added, in the second case they will be independent of this factor; the only difference between the reactions when large or small amounts of the foreign body are added, if it acts as a catalytic agent, is the rate at which the new products appear. Of course, this last statement is true only when the catalyst is not paralysed or destroyed before it has completed its work. Cases are known, in fact, where such phenomena happen, so that the final result depends on the amount of catalyst added; such cases are not very infrequent amongst enzyme-actions and will be considered later.

Although the degree of acceleration of a reaction is proportional to the concentration of catalyst present, it is astonishing how minute a quantity is capable of perceptible activity. For example, according to Bredig and v. Berneck (35, p. 276), colloidal platinum is able to act upon 1,000,000 times its weight of hydrogen peroxide; again, it was found by Brode (36, p. 289) that, in the reaction between hydrogen peroxide

and hydriodic acid, the catalytic action of 1 gramme-molecule of molybdic acid in 31,000,000 litres could still be detected.

The question naturally arises, when the reaction catalysed is a reversible, or balanced, one, has the fact that the equilibrium position is arrived at under the accelerating influence of a catalyst any effect on the actual position of this equilibrium? It was shown by Berthelot and Péan de Saint-Gilles (24, p. 418) that, if 1 mol. (= gramme-molecule) of ethyl alcohol be mixed with 1 mol. of acetic acid, the reaction proceeds until the mixture has the composition:—

$\frac{1}{3}$ mol. alcohol + $\frac{1}{3}$ mol. acid + $\frac{2}{3}$ mol. ester + $\frac{2}{3}$ mol. water.

The same end-position is also reached when 1 mol. of ethyl acetate is mixed with 1 mol. of water. So that, in any mixture of these four bodies, two opposite reactions are proceeding at unequal rates until a certain relative concentration of the constituents results, at which point the two reactions have an equal velocity.

Now suppose that a catalyst, *e.g.*, HCl, is added to such a system, it is plain that, unless both the opposite reactions were equally accelerated, the equilibrium-position would be changed. This can only be done by adding or taking away energy, since a change in the position of equilibrium implies a change in the osmotic pressure of the solution. If, then, our definition of a catalyst be correct, *viz.*, that it neither adds nor subtracts energy, it follows that it must accelerate both the hydrolytic and the synthetic reactions. This has been shown experimentally by Knoblauch (101, p. 269) for the cases of formation and decomposition of esters by hydrochloric acid. As regards the non-alteration of the position of equilibrium, the proof has been given by Koelichen (102, pp. 136 and 149), in the case of the reversible polymerisation of acetone by the catalytic action of bases, that the equilibrium-constant is, in dilute solution, independent of the concentration or nature of the catalysing base. Similarly, it has been shown by Turbaba (157) that the equilibrium between aldehyde and paraldehyde is independent of the nature or amount of the catalyst, whether this be sulphur trioxide, zinc sulphate, hydrochloric, oxalic or phosphoric acids.

The state of affairs described above does not necessarily hold when the catalyst is altered in any way by the reaction; such alteration may be physical or chemical. The former case is of special importance as concerning enzymes, as will appear later. It has also been shown by Abel (3 and 185) that, when the reaction proceeds with the formation of an intermediate combination between the catalyst and the body which is attacked, the law that catalysts must raise, in quantitatively equal proportional amount, the two opposite factors of a chemical reaction, does not necessarily hold. In other words, if the catalyst is in a different chemical or physical state at the end from what it was at the beginning, it has given up or received energy, so that a change of position of equilibrium is quite conceivable.

It seems probable, indeed, that the explanation of a large number of catalytic reactions lies in this formation of intermediate compounds. At the same time, as Ostwald (see Brode [36, p. 305]) has pointed out, in order that this shall be a satisfactory theory it must be shown, in any given case, that the sum of all the reactions when intermediate compounds are formed is more rapid than the uncatalysed reaction itself. Brode (36, p. 281, etc.) has given the direct proof of one case of such a reaction.

Hydriodic acid is decomposed by hydrogen peroxide at a measurable rate, which is enormously increased by molybdic acid acting as a catalyst. During the course of the reaction a series of permolybdic acids can be shown, by chemical means, to be formed and the velocity of their production determined. These acids decompose hydriodic acid with great rapidity, so that the sum of the two reactions, formation of permolybdic acids by action of hydrogen peroxide on molybdic acid and decomposition of hydriodic acid by these, take place at a considerably greater rate than that at which hydrogen peroxide by itself can effect the change.

The theory of intermediate compounds does not explain all cases. For example, Tafel (151) has shown that the catalytic action of hydrochloric acid in the formation of esters from methyl alcohol and acids cannot be accounted for by the intermediate production of methyl chloride (CH_3Cl), as had been suggested. In the first place, this body is not formed with any rapidity under the conditions of the reaction, and, in the second place, when added, it is found unable to replace hydrochloric acid as a catalyst.

It would be unfruitful, in the present state of knowledge, to discuss in further detail the various hypotheses put forward to explain catalysis. One of these, however, is of importance in connection with colloidal catalysts, such as enzymes are, namely, surface-condensation of the reacting bodies, in which case the accelerated rate of change is, in all probability, due to increase of concentration. A similar hypothesis was suggested by Faraday to explain the action of platinum on mixtures of oxygen and hydrogen gases.[1]

Attention must be called to one more point before passing on to the consideration of the special class of catalysts known as "enzymes"; in view of certain theories as to the nature of enzymes, it is important to notice that all the catalysts mentioned in this chapter are definite chemical individuals, of known composition and properties. As yet this statement cannot be made of any enzyme. We are not, however, warranted in denying definite chemical constitution to them, until it has been shown that bodies of known constitution may at one time possess the properties of enzymes and at another time, without any change in their chemical nature, be devoid of such properties.

For a more detailed account of the general phenomena of catalysis, Chapters X. and XI. of Mellor's *Chemical Statics and Dynamics* should be consulted.

[1] See Mellor's *Chemical Statics and Dynamics*, p. 258, etc.

CHAPTER II.

ENZYMES AS CATALYSTS.

AT an early date in the history of physiology bodies having properties similar to those of the inorganic catalysts were prepared from the tissues of living organisms. In 1830 Dubrunfaut prepared an extract of malt which converted starch into sugar (49), just as strong acids were known to do (Kirchhoff [97]). Three years later, Payen and Persoz precipitated by alcohol from such extracts a substance which could be dried and preserved, and which had a very powerful action on starch (130). This they called "diastase".

As more bodies of similar properties became known, they were called "ferments," on account of the resemblance of their activities to those of alcoholic fermentation.

When Pasteur had shown that this process was due to the presence of a living organism, diastase and bodies like it were distinguished as "soluble or unorganised ferments" in contradistinction to living organisms, like yeast, which went by the name of "organised ferments".

Although many physiologists, as Traube for example, were of opinion that organised ferments owed their properties to the presence within them of soluble ferments, the double use of the word "ferment" gave rise to some confusion, and induced Kühne (105, p. 293) to suggest a new name in an interesting passage, of which the translation is:—

"The latter designations (*i.e.*, formed and unformed ferments) have not gained general acceptance, in that on the one hand it was objected that chemical bodies, like ptyalin, pepsin, etc., could not be called ferments, since the name was already given to yeast-cells and other *organisms* (Brücke); while on the other hand it was said that yeast-cells could not be called *ferment*, because then all organisms, including man, would have to be so designated (Hoppe-Seyler). Without stopping to inquire further why the name excited so much opposition, I have taken the opportunity to suggest a new one, and I give the name *enzymes* to some of the better known substances, called by many 'unformed ferments'. This is not intended to imply any particular hypothesis, but it merely states that *ἐν ζύμῃ* (in yeast) something occurs that exerts this or that activity, which is considered to belong to the class called fermentative. The name is not, however, intended to be limited to the invertin of yeast, but it *is* intended to imply that more complex organisms, from which the enzymes, pepsin, trypsin, etc., can be obtained, are not so fundamentally different from the unicellular organisms as some people would have us believe."

In this monograph the name "enzyme" will therefore be invariably used.

We may, for the present then, define enzymes as the catalysts produced by living organisms. This statement is not to be taken as in any way prejudging the possibility of their ultimate production in the laboratory; when a body of the properties of trypsin is synthesised it will have every right to the same name. In the actual investigation of enzymes their source is, of course, immaterial.

In the above definition, as will be noted, it is assumed that enzymes behave as catalysts, so that it is incumbent upon us at the outset to consider how far the statement is justified.

Berzelius (27), in his *Lehrbuch der Chemie*, had already called attention to the similarity of enzymes and catalysts in the following words: "We had the experience of finding that the change of sugar into carbon dioxide and alcohol, as it takes place in fermentation under the influence of an insoluble body, which we know by the name of ferment, could not be explained by an action similar to double decomposition between the sugar and ferment. But, when compared with known phenomena in the inorganic world, it resembled nothing else so much as the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide under the influence of platinum, silver or fibrin; it was therefore quite natural to assume an analogous action in the case of the ferment." And again: "We have reasons, well founded on fact, to make the assertion, that in living plants and animals there take place thousands of catalytic processes between tissues and fluids".

Views of a similar kind have been expressed by physiologists, Carl Ludwig, Traube, Bunge and many others.

Before proceeding further with the question before us, it is advisable to briefly refer to the terminology of enzyme-action in general. A name is frequently needed for the substances on which enzymes exert their activity. Unfortunately, no really satisfactory name has yet been suggested. "Hydrolyte" would serve where the action is one of hydrolysis, but it would exclude any other action such as oxidation or intramolecular splitting, as well as the synthetic actions, such as the formation of a disaccharide by the action of maltase on glucose. On the whole, "substrate," already used by many writers, seems to answer the purpose best.

As to the names of the enzymes themselves, it was suggested by Duclaux that the termination "ase" should be taken as denoting an enzyme and that this termination should be added to the name of the substrate, *e.g.*, lactase is the enzyme accelerating the hydrolysis of lactose. It would be inconvenient to displace old-established names, such as "pepsin" and "trypsin," but, as far as possible, the recommendation of Duclaux should be acted upon.

It has been the custom to speak of an enzyme which attacks, say, starch or protein, as "amylolytic" or "proteolytic" respectively; but, as Professor Armstrong has pointed out, these names are incorrectly formed. "Amylolytic," in analogy with "electrolytic," should mean a decomposition by means of starch. To avoid this misuse of words, Professor Armstrong (7) advocates the use of the termination "clastic" instead of "lytic" in speaking of the action of an enzyme on its appropriate substrate.

Apart from theory, it is useful to know what kind of properties to look for in a substance suspected to be an enzyme. An unknown body,

if an enzyme, may be expected to manifest the general characters of catalysts to a greater or less degree.

Now we have seen that there are practically only two properties common to all catalysts, *viz.*, that of not initiating a new reaction, but merely changing the rate of one already in progress, and that of not appearing in the final products of the reaction. Certain other properties either follow from these, or, although possessed by the majority of catalysts, do not seem to be essential. We will now proceed to examine, in order, these various properties as manifested by enzymes.

It is obviously not an easy matter to give a satisfactory answer to the question whether enzymes start a new reaction or accelerate one already in progress. The state of affairs is, in fact, similar to that of a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen gases catalysed by platinum, in which we found evidence that the combination does take place at room temperatures, although at an inappreciable rate. The greater number of enzymes have a hydrolytic action, and their activities are, as a rule, manifested in the presence of an excess of water. Now we know that water contains hydrogen- and hydroxyl-ions, which have a hydrolytic action and, although their concentration is very small at 0°, it increases rapidly as the temperature rises. The following numbers will serve to show this:—

Gramme-ions of $H^{\cdot}$ per litre of water at:—

0° . . .	$0{\cdot}35 \times 10^{-7}$
18° . . .	$0{\cdot}80 \times 10^{-7}$
50° . . .	$2{\cdot}48 \times 10^{-7}$ (Kohlrausch).

In fact, water at 100° is capable of hydrolysing cane-sugar to glucose and fructose at a measurable rate. It is, therefore, no unjustifiable assumption that the process takes place at room temperature, although slowly. Changes at this temperature have, moreover, been described. Starch solutions were found by Aggazzotti (4) to undergo a spontaneous change in the direction of dextrin and sugar. Brailsford Robertson (137, p. 344), also, noticed that solutions of ammonium caseinogenate slowly increased in electrical conductivity when left to themselves, a change similar to that which occurs when they are acted upon by trypsin.

Certain difficulties must not be overlooked. Enzymes, in many cases, do not carry the hydrolytic process as far as acids do. The amylase of malt converts starch into maltose and apparently no further, whereas acids convert it into glucose; trypsin acts on proteins leaving unattacked a complex polypeptide, which can be further split into amino-acids by acids or by the enzyme, erepsin. Other cases might be mentioned, but these will suffice to illustrate the point. With regard to this objection, there are one or two considerations to be borne in mind which tend to remove its serious nature in some degree. In the first place, it is not impossible that all these reactions would continue to complete hydrolysis, if appropriate conditions were present; we shall see later that an enzyme-action comes to an end- or equilibrium-point owing to the accumulation of the products of the reaction, so that by dilution, or removal of the products, the reaction can be caused to go on farther. The final part of the change may be very slow, so that very prolonged periods of action may be necessary to detect it; the case of pepsin is instructive in this connection; it was thought until re-

cently that this enzyme was unable to hydrolyse proteins beyond the stage of "peptones"; we know now that, if sufficient time be allowed, amino-acids are produced.[1] The formation of alcohol from sugar is another difficult case. It appears that different enzymes produce different bodies from the same substrate. The weight falling along an inclined plane, as used for an illustration in the preceding chapter, gives us a hint here; it was pointed out that, although the total energy change was the same whether much or little catalyst (oil) was present, yet the form of energy might be quite different, in the one case heat, in the other kinetic energy.

Notwithstanding what has been said, the fact remains as yet not satisfactorily explained why one enzyme effects part of a change as rapidly as another enzyme, for example, the production of peptones by pepsin and trypsin; while amino-acids are rapidly formed by the latter enzyme and but very slowly by the former.

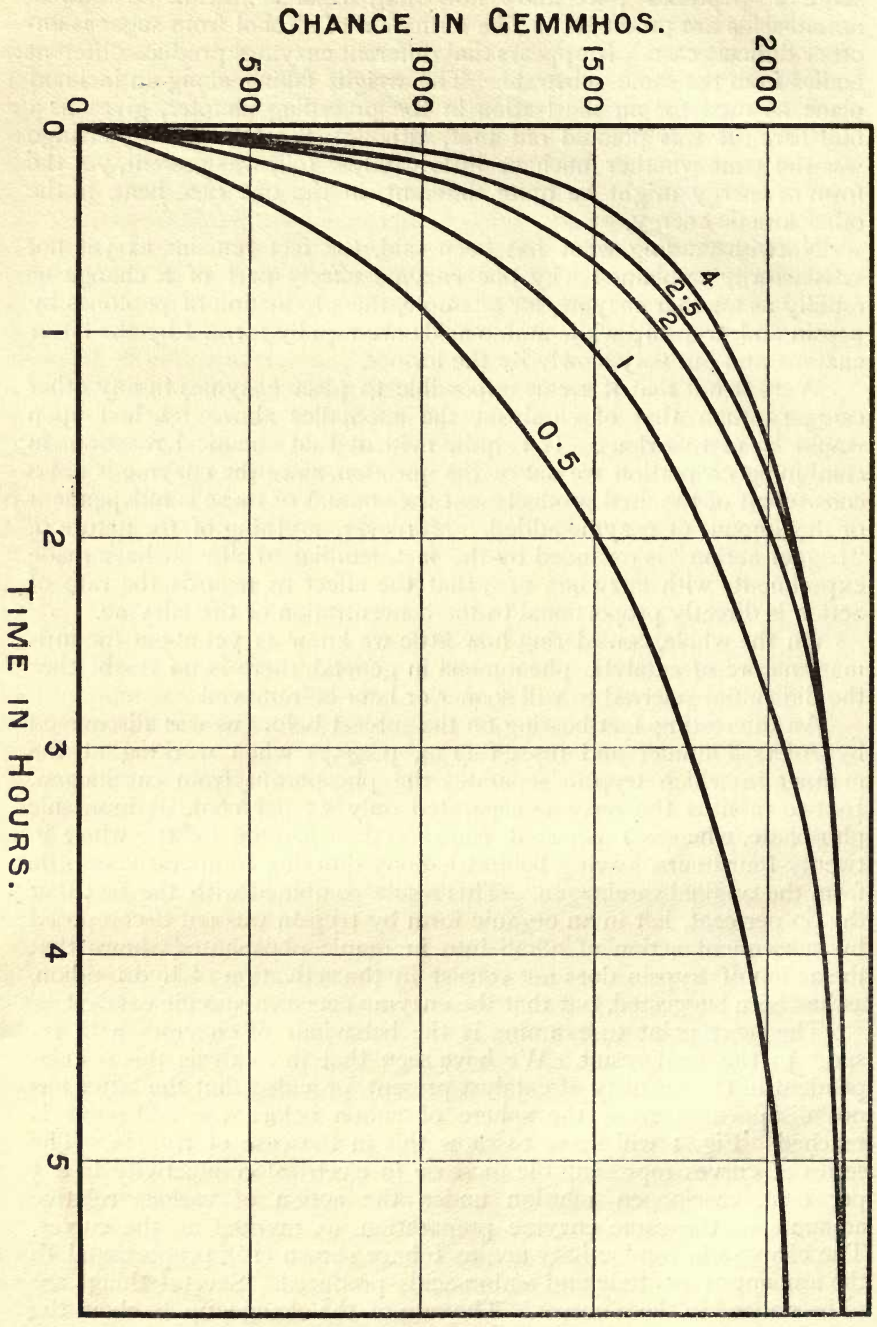
Were it not that it seems impossible to place enzymes in any other category than that of catalysts, the anomalies above touched upon would be more serious. It is quite evident that chemical reactions in combining proportion are out of the question, since the enzyme is not a constituent of the final products and the amount of these is independent of the amount of enzyme added. Moreover, anything of the nature of "trigger action" is excluded by the fact, familiar to all who have made experiments with enzymes, *viz.*, that the effect as regards the rate of action is directly proportional to the concentration of the enzyme.

On the whole, considering how little we know as yet about the intimate nature of catalytic phenomena in general, there is no doubt that the difficulties referred to will sooner or later be removed.

An interesting fact bearing on the subject before us was discovered by Aders Plimmer and myself (134, p. 457) when working at the manner in which trypsin separates the phosphorus from caseinogen. In two months the enzyme separated only 35 per cent. as inorganic phosphate, whereas 1 per cent. caustic soda separated off the whole in twenty-four hours, leaving behind a body differing comparatively little from the original caseinogen. This result, combined with the fact that the 60 per cent. left in an organic form by trypsin was not decomposed by subsequent action of alkali into inorganic phosphates, shows that the action of trypsin does not consist in the activation of hydroxidion, as has been suggested, but that the enzyme acts as a specific catalyst.

The next point to examine is the behaviour of enzymes with respect to the final result. We have seen that in catalysis this is independent of the quantity of catalyst present, provided that the latter has not disappeared from the sphere of action before the end-point is reached. Fig. 1 will serve to show this in the case of trypsin. The series of curves represent the increase in electrical conductivity in a 5 per cent. caseinogen solution under the action of various relative amounts of the same enzyme preparation, as marked on the curves. The changes in conductivity are, as I have shown (16), proportional to the amount of peptone and amino-acids produced. Several things are to be noticed in these curves. The rate of the change, up to about the eightieth minute, is directly proportional to the concentration of the

[1] See Note B.


CHANGE IN GEMMHOS.
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TIME IN HOURS.
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1
0.5

FIG. 1.

enzyme, as seen in the relative steepness of the curves. As the reaction goes on, one curve after another joins that of the larger amount, until finally they all arrive at the same position. The one with the least amount of enzyme did not arrive at this height during the time shown in the curve, probably because of the destruction of the trypsin, which is an unstable body. The last fact shows the necessity of care in interpreting the results of experiments made for the purpose of tracing the relation between concentration of enzyme and effect produced. It was, at one time, denied by some observers that Buchner's zymase, the alcohol-producing body of yeast, had the characters of an enzyme. But if the tables on pp. 160-62 of Buchner's *Zymasegärung* (41) be consulted, it will be seen that its behaviour closely resembles that of trypsin; it is probable that the zymase is destroyed by the proteoclastic enzyme present with it in the yeast-juice.

Many enzymes, such as amylase, can be found at the end of the reaction apparently unaltered (Effront [54, p. 155]), and can then act upon a further supply of substrate. Even trypsin, when in presence of a high concentration of substrate or products, is not at all rapidly destroyed. This circumstance is sometimes made use of in preparing enzymes from the cells in which they occur, *e.g.*, pepsin from gastric mucous membrane, by allowing it to digest itself in presence of acid at 40° C.

The fact that a small amount of enzyme is as equally effective as a larger, if sufficient time be allowed, was made use of by the author in conjunction with Starling to decide the dispute as to the nature of enterokinase (19). This body, discovered by Chepovalnikoff in the *Succus entericus*, has the power of converting the inactive zymogen of the pancreatic juice, as secreted, into active trypsin. In the opinion of Pavloff, the body has the nature of an enzyme, whereas Delezenne and others regard the action as consisting in the chemical union of the two bodies to form the third, trypsin. If this latter view be correct, the quantity of trypsin formed will be in exact proportion to the amount of enterokinase used. We found, on the contrary, that quantities of the enterokinase solution, varying from 0·0001 c.c. to 1·6 c.c. per 10 c.c. of juice, if allowed to act for two days, produced the same amount of trypsin, within the limits of experimental error. In using the method for such a purpose it is obviously essential to take care that the least amount added is not large enough to combine with the whole of the body to be changed, otherwise there would, even in case of a true chemical compound, be no difference between the action of large and small amounts. The kind of results obtained in an experiment of the kind mentioned are seen in the table below.

The first column gives the quantity of enterokinase solution in 11·6 c.c. of secretin juice, the other three the length in mm. of gelatin of Mett's tubes digested in the time noted at the head of the column.

Enterokinase added c.c.	In first six hours.	In next eighteen hours.	In next twenty-four hours.
0·1	0	4·1	10·5
0·4	2	10	9·25
1·6	3	11	9

Owing to the absence of appreciable quantities of substrate or products a slight destruction of trypsin had taken place in the cases where it had been formed at an early stage.

Instances were given in the previous chapter of the minute traces in which catalysts are able to exercise their action. This is, of course, not surprising when the catalyst remains unchanged at the end of its work; at the same time it is perhaps striking that such a very small concentration should have any effect whatever, no matter how long it were allowed to act. In the case of enzymes we find similar facts. Invertase, according to O'Sullivan and Tompson (129), can hydrolyse 200,000 times its weight of saccharose; rennet, according to Hammarsten, can clot 400,000 times its weight of caseinogen in milk, and so on. When we remember that these preparations consist, in all probability, only to a small extent of the actual enzyme, their activity becomes all the more astonishing.

Since, as we shall see in more detail in a later chapter, there are good reasons for the statement that reactions catalysed by enzymes are, as a general rule, reversible ones, it is of considerable importance to know whether those which are known to accelerate a decomposition process also accelerate the opposite or synthetic process, just as we have seen in the case of inorganic catalysts such as hydrion. The question will come up for discussion in a subsequent chapter, so that I will merely state here that it has been shown for many enzymes that such is the case. Maltase forms glucose from maltose and a disaccharide from glucose, emulsin hydrolyses salicin and also, under different conditions, synthesises it from glucose and saligenin, lipase accelerates the hydrolysis of ethyl butyrate and also its formation from butyric acid and ethyl alcohol, and so on.[1]

As to an influence on the position of equilibrium, we have seen that, if the catalyst acts by the formation of intermediate combinations, this position is not necessarily the same as that of the uncatalysed reaction, or even that attained under the influence of a different catalyst. Now, since enzymes act by forming intermediate combinations, of what kind will be discussed later, it is not surprising to find that the equilibrium position under lipase is not the same as that under hydrion (Dietz, [48, p. 320]). Visser (164, p. 301) has shown that in the cases of invertase and emulsin the concentration of the enzyme has no effect on the position of equilibrium.

Unlike inorganic catalysts, enzymes are destroyed by temperatures from 60° to 100°, differing according to the conditions present. This behaviour, though of practical importance, does not affect their claim to be regarded as catalysts and will be explained in the next chapter. The phenomenon of an apparent *optimum* temperature, in which enzymes differ from the majority of other catalysts, will also be explained later and shown to be due to injury by raised temperature.

[1] Note C.

CHAPTER III.

CHEMICAL AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF ENZYMES.

ONE of the most important physical properties of enzymes is their colloidal nature, as shown by the fact that they do not pass through parchment-paper, or do so with extreme slowness. Since many other characteristics are dependent on this fact, it is advisable to devote a little space to the discussion of the essential properties of colloidal solutions in so far as they are of importance with respect to the nature and mode of action of enzymes.

The first thing that strikes an observer as regards colloidal solutions is that bodies which in the usual sense of the word are insoluble in water, metallic platinum or arsenious sulphide, for example, can, by appropriate methods, be induced to "dissolve" in water so as to form a permanent solution, which in many ways behaves differently from a true solution. By various means it can be shown that the body so taken up in water is, in reality, in the state of extremely minute, "ultra-microscopic" particles, that is, particles too small to be visible under ordinary methods of illumination of objects under the microscope.[1] The chief proof that we have to do with matter in a particulate condition consists in the application of the Faraday-Tyndall test. This consists in passing a powerful beam of light through the liquid; if particles be present, the path of the beam can be readily seen as a bright streak, when looked at from the side. In the case of permanent colloidal solutions, which do not deposit on standing, the light sent out at right angles to the beam is found to be polarised; this means that the particles reflecting it are smaller than the mean wave-length of the light forming the beam.

If now we consider in what respect the particles, say, in a colloidal solution of platinum prepared by Bredig's method of an arc between platinum electrodes under water (35, p. 265), differ from an equal amount of the metal in the form of sheet or wire immersed in water, it is plain that it consists in the relatively enormous development of surface in the former case. According to Siedentopf and Zsigmondy (172) the particles in certain colloidal solutions of gold had a radius of one-millionth of a centimetre; a sphere of gold with a radius of 1 millimetre if divided into particles of these dimensions would have a surface of some 100 square metres.

It might, perhaps, be supposed that if the process of subdivision were carried farther and farther until molecular dimensions were reached, the phenomena due to surface would be more and more

[1] It is pointed out by Hardy (77, p. 110) that, according to the phase-rule, these colloidal solutions probably consist of suspensions of solid particles, containing a small amount of water, in a dilute true solution of the solid body in water. These are the two phases of the heterogeneous system. The same view is taken by Quincke (184, p. 1012).

manifest. In point of fact, however, this is not the case; although we know nothing of what the molecular state essentially is, we do know that bodies in this condition do not show the properties of matter in mass, *i.e.*, bounded by surfaces. At the same time it must be understood that there is no hard and fast line to be drawn between matter in pieces visible to the naked eye, down through ultra-microscopic particles to molecules. Such properties as osmotic pressure, diffusibility, etc., are exhibited by all and in proportion to the dimensions of their elements. Certain of these properties are more pronounced in some of the above stages, others in other stages. For example, osmotic pressure, which is a function of the number of bodies acting as individuals, whether molecules, ions or particles, in unit volume, will naturally be greater, the greater the number of bits a given mass is divided into; whereas the phenomena due to surface can only be present as long as the particles still have the properties of matter in mass.

There is one respect in which a real distinction seems to exist. An atom or molecule, when it has an electric charge, is called an ion; colloidal particles are also capable of carrying a charge, but whereas in the former case this charge is invariable in amount and always the same in sign for each kind of ion, in the latter case the charge is variable, both in sign and quantity. The probable reason for this we shall see presently.

The great distinguishing characteristic of colloids, accordingly, is the enormous development of surface. We must, therefore, look for properties dependent on this. Now the most salient of these is that of surface-tension. When solids are immersed in fluids the film at the interface where the two are in contact behaves as if stretched. Any free surface of a liquid shows this property. Its real existence can easily be made manifest by taking a wire ring with a thread tied to two points so as to lie loosely across the space; the ring is then dipped into soap solution so as to make a film in which the thread floats; if the film be now broken on one side of the thread by touching it with a pointed bit of filter-paper, the thread is immediately drawn into the arc of a circle by the tension of the rest of the film. Suppose, then, that the colloidal particles are suspended in a liquid containing in solution a substance which lowers the surface-tension of the liquid, as in fact the majority of bodies do, it is plain that, if this substance accumulates at the interface of the solid and liquid, the surface-tension at this place will be lowered. It can be shown thermodynamically that such a process tending to a diminution of tension will of necessity occur (Willard Gibbs [189]). It is, in fact, the phenomenon known as "adsorption," which plays so large a part in the behaviour of colloids, and everywhere where surfaces are in contact with liquids or gases. The phenomenon can readily be seen by taking a dilute solution of a dye such as congo-red and immersing a piece of filter-paper in it; after a time the dye will be seen to have concentrated on the paper, and, if the solution was not too strong, the colour will have nearly vanished from the solution and be transferred to the paper. Such a process is obviously of much importance in cell-activity, where the constituents of the protoplasm are colloids and the various bodies which arrive to be acted upon, or themselves to act, are in very dilute solution. It also plays a prominent part in enzyme-action, as will often be seen in subsequent pages.

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There are some properties of colloids which need a little more detailed discussion in respect to their connection with the problem before us.

In the first place there is diffusibility. The fact that, as definitely shown by Starling (147, p. 323, and 148, p. 318) and by Moore and Roaf (121), colloids have a measurable, though small, osmotic pressure proves that their particles possess that amount of motion which is necessary to cause an osmotic pressure. They are, therefore, not absolutely indiffusible. Hæmoglobin is, accordingly, found to diffuse slowly into a jelly of gelatin. As to their ability to pass through membranes, this is a question entirely of the structure of the membrane, especially as to the dimensions of its pores. Congo-red, which shows all the usual characters of colloids, will pass slowly through some samples of parchment-paper, but not at all through others. The aniline dyes manifest all possible degrees of diffusibility, in accordance with the dimensions of their ultra-microscopic particles. Similarly, although most enzymes do not diffuse through parchment-paper, it appears that invertase does so to a slight degree, and "diastase," as prepared by Fraenkel and Hamburg (67, p. 396) from malt, although showing an illuminated cone in the ultra-microscope and therefore containing particles, which were too small to be seen separately, was found to be divided by dialysis into two distinct enzymes, one of which, *viz.*, that which caused the formation of sugar, passed through the paper, while the other, which liquefied starch, was left behind.

In the second place, colloidal solutions exhibit the phenomena known as "hysteresis". While a sodium chloride solution is always the same whatever its previous history, frozen, boiled or kept for any length of time, colloidal solutions are not the same after experiencing any of these actions. In other words, they are unstable and liable to spontaneous change. Thus, enzymes in solution lose their activity more or less rapidly. Many, like trypsin, slowly lose activity even in the air-dry state, and can only be kept for any length of time in a desiccator in a cool and dark place.

In the third place very many colloids, both organic and inorganic, possess naturally an electrical charge, positive or negative, and those which have not such a charge can be caused to take up one by the action of electrolytes. Arsenious sulphide, as prepared by passing hydrogen sulphide through a solution of arsenious acid, has a negative charge, while ferric hydroxide, prepared by the dialysis of a ferric chloride solution, has a positive charge; congo-red has a negative charge, night-blue a positive one; serum-globulin, in neutral solution, has no charge, in acid solution a positive one, in alkaline solutions a negative one. In this latter case there seems no doubt that the colloid takes up hydrions or hydroxidions from the solution and so obtains its charge. The precise cause of the charge in other cases is not clear. Most solid bodies in suspension in water have a negative charge, as shown by Quincke, but this charge can be reversed in sign by addition of acid (Perrin [132]). The existence of a charge can be detected by exposing the solution to an electric field between electrodes in a tube, and using preferably Whetham's boundary method (167, pp. 342-45); the colloid particles will travel towards the pole of opposite sign to that of their own charge (see the investigations of Hardy, 74, 75 and 76).

Statements have been made to the effect that enzymes are electrically

charged. Probable as this is, it is perhaps premature to accept it until we know that we have pure enzymes in our hands.

As we have seen, colloids take up by adsorption various other bodies, and especially colloids. Although this process occurs when either or both of the bodies concerned is uncharged, it is naturally greatly increased or diminished if they have opposite or similar charges respectively. These "adsorption-compounds," or "colloidal-complexes," as they are called by some when both constituents are colloids, play a very important part in enzyme-action and in fact in physiological chemistry generally. To understand their nature, or rather their chief properties, let us take a concrete case. When electro-negative arsenious sulphide is mixed with electro-positive ferric hydroxide in such proportions that the resulting mixture is electrically neutral, both bodies are precipitated in the form of a complex colloid, and the fluid becomes clear and colourless. It is sometimes stated that this precipitate is soluble in excess of either colloid. If we make mixtures of these in series, beginning with excess of the one and ending with excess of the other, we shall see that the statement does not correctly express the state of affairs. Suppose that we have so arranged the series that the mixture in electrical neutrality and total precipitation is in the middle, we notice that in all the various mixtures there is a precipitate, but that it progressively diminishes as we proceed towards either end, *i.e.*, as the excess of one or of the other colloid becomes greater. Further, since the two colloids used are conveniently of different colours, it is easy to see by their colour that all the precipitates contain *both* colloids, but in varying relative proportion, according to the excess of either colloid in the mixture. The same statement is to be made with respect to the supernatant fluids, all of which contain both colloids. A series of new colloids has therefore made its appearance, consisting of adsorption-compounds of the original colloids in all possible proportions. These compounds differ from those of pure chemistry in that, instead of being in constant combining proportion, they are compounds in varying combining proportion,[1] the proportion being determined by the relative concentration of the two colloids in the mixture.

An important characteristic of adsorption phenomena is the form of the law which governs the composition of the compounds. To understand this expression it is best to take a concrete case again. Picric acid is soluble in water and in ether, but it is more soluble in ether than in water; with constant quantities of water, ether and picric acid a definite fraction of the latter will be present in the ether, say four-fifths; let us now double the amount of picric acid, the proportion of solvents remaining the same as before; as is familiar to all, the amount of picric acid both in the ether, and in the water, will be doubled. This is an instance of a physical partition in proportion to relative solubility. Take now a case of a purely chemical reaction such as silver nitrate and hydrochloric acid; if to a solution of silver nitrate sufficient hydrochloric acid to combine with the silver be added, the whole of the latter will be precipitated, so that the addition of more hydrochloric acid will bring down no further quantity. Take finally a case of an adsorption reaction between colloids, cellulose in the form of filter-paper, which acts

[1] See Ostwald (127, i., p. 1097).

precisely like a colloid, and a dilute solution of congo-red. After a certain time it will be found that part of the dye has deposited itself on the paper, but not the whole; that is, the reaction partakes of the nature of both the physical and chemical reactions; physical, in that there is dye both in the paper and in the solution, chemical, in that, like the silver chloride, there is a kind of precipitation. If we double the concentration of the dye we shall find that, unlike the chemical reaction, more congo-red is deposited on the paper; and unlike the physical process, it will be found, on making quantitative experiments, that the amount of dye taken up is not doubled, but something less, in fact multiplied by some root of 2; in most adsorption processes this root is found to be less than the square root. Expressed in algebraic form, when the concentration of the solution is doubled the amount adsorbed is not multiplied by 2, but by 2 to the power $\frac{1}{n}$ where n is greater than 1, and usually less than 2, *viz.*, from 1·4 to 1·7. It is obvious, however, that we are justified in applying the name of adsorption to cases of any values of n, less than infinity,[1] in which case the reaction is purely chemical; $\frac{1}{n}$ here becomes 0, and all numbers to the power 0 become unity; in other words, the amount of silver chloride in the example above is always the same whatever the concentration of the hydrochloric acid. When $n = 1$ it is plain that the physical process of partition according to solubility is expressed.

We see then that the important point about the process of adsorption is that relatively more of the compound is formed in the more dilute solutions. Many important facts in the chemistry of colloids, especially in the relation of toxin to antitoxin, find their explanation in this circumstance.

It is of interest to consider for a moment what the expression above given means when n is less than 1; it must refer to cases where relatively *more* of the adsorption-compound is formed in the stronger solutions. Although such cases are rare, it appears that they may occur.

It will readily be understood that, although adsorption can take place between uncharged colloids, or even those of similar charge, the process is much facilitated when the bodies have charges of opposite sign. The fact is well shown by the relation of paper to colloidal dyes. In water, paper has a negative charge,[2] congo-red also is electro-negative, accordingly, there is practically no adsorption. Night-blue, on the other hand, is electro-positive, so that it is adsorbed in large amount (14, p. 205).

Before proceeding to the subject of the influence of electrolytes on colloids, we may briefly refer to the causes of the permanency of colloidal suspensions. There are several causes which have been suggested and, no doubt, in many cases these co-operate. We have seen how neutralisation of electric charges results in precipitation in some cases, hence it was suggested by Hardy (77, p. 114) that mutual repulsion of similarly charged particles was in some cases responsible for the per-

[1] Freundlich (175), who has done much important work on this subject, is frequently understood as limiting the title of "adsorption" to reactions with particular values of this exponent. It does not appear from his work that he intended to do this.

[2] See Winkelmann, *Handbuch der Physik*, 2te Auflage, 1905, p. 955.

manency of the solution. But there are many uncharged colloids equally permanent, so that there must be some other reason. Probably the very minuteness of the particles prevents their deposition, owing to the relatively great frictional resistance; the fact that these particles are in continual motion, like those of gases, must also be remembered. This is shown by their osmotic pressure, as also by the fact that they can diffuse in opposition to gravity, as can be seen by hæmoglobin passing into a tube of solidified gelatine suspended mouth downwards in a solution of this body.

We have seen that an electrically charged colloid is able to throw down a colloid which has a charge of the opposite sign; it is therefore not surprising to find that electrolytes have the same kind of effect. Arsenious sulphide, being negative, is precipitated by positive ions. Ferric hydroxide, being positive, is precipitated by negative ions. Now of course in adding an electrolyte, sodium chloride, for example, we are adding both positive and negative ions, which will have opposite effects. In point of fact, in these comparatively simple cases the ion which precipitates is found to be prepotent. How do we know that it is the one of opposite sign? The answer is by comparing the effects of series of salts with common kation or anion respectively. The chloride, sulphate and phosphate of sodium are nearly equal in action on negative colloids, whereas on positive colloids the effect of the sulphate is considerably more than double that of the chloride, and that of the phosphate very much more than three times.

Organic colloids, *e.g.*, serum-globulin, can be made either positive or negative by acid or alkali respectively, as previously stated. When positive they are precipitated by negative colloids or ions, such as arsenious sulphide or the ferrocyanic ion. When negative, positive colloids or ions are the active agents.

The possibilities when mixtures of various colloids and ions occur, as in the living cell, will thus be seen to be extremely complex, indeed, as yet but little is definitely known of them. The case of two colloids and an electrolyte is comparatively simple and may be mentioned. Paper and congo-red, which are both negative, have but little adsorptive affinity for each other; the presence of positive ions, however, causes a large adsorption to take place, while anions have very little effect. Unlike what happens in this comparatively simple case, if we take negative paper and positive dye, the action of an electrolyte is also that of the kation; so that *less* adsorption takes place than in the absence of the electrolyte (14, p. 203).

It is very important to bear in mind that all these colloidal reactions have both a physical and chemical aspect. Certain colloids have a special adsorptive affinity for one another, which is not purely chemical, since it follows the laws of adsorption and not those of constant combining proportion. This fact is of great importance with regard to enzymes.

To avoid misconception attention must be called to the fact that, as will probably have been noticed, many reactions can equally well be described in the language of pure chemistry or in that of colloidal or physical chemistry. These are in no sense antagonistic, but call attention to different aspects of the phenomena. For instance, the well-known test for proteins with potassium ferrocyanide and acetic acid may

be stated to be due to the insolubility in acid of the compound of the protein with the ferrocyanide; or it may be explained by saying that the protein in neutral solution, being a colloid without electrical charge and hence unaffected by small amounts of electrolyte, becomes capable of precipitation by the quadrivalent anion of potassium ferrocyanide when itself made electro-positive by the action of hydrion.

Enzymes then are colloids, and have the property of carrying down with them, by adsorption, constituents of the solutions from which they are precipitated. It is not therefore to be wondered at that amylase or invertase, as obtained in the usual way, give carbohydrate reactions, nor that pepsin or trypsin give protein reactions. It is found, however, that the more the bodies are purified, the fewer characteristic reactions of any kind do they show, and at the same time the more unstable do they become. The possibility must not be forgotten that a particular enzyme may be similar in its constitution to the substrate on which it acts, since there is such a close connection between certain enzymes and their own particular substrates, as we shall see later.

Perhaps the purest preparations known as yet are the invertase of W. A. Osborne (126), the amylase of Fraenkel and Hamburg (67), and the pepsin of Pekelharing (131). Let us see what the properties of these bodies are, leaving the method of preparation for the next chapter.

Osborne's invertase gave none of the protein reactions, except precipitation by copper sulphate, lead acetate and phospho-tungstic acid; it gave Millon's, the xanthoproteic and biuret tests very faintly. It was, therefore, not protein in nature. On the other hand, it was found impossible to completely free it from carbohydrate, which was afterwards identified by Koelle (103) as mannose. At present it is not possible to express an opinion as to whether this is an essential component or not. It is suggestive that Fraenkel and Hamburg's amylase also contained a carbohydrate in small amount, but, in this case, a pentose. It also showed absence of typical protein reactions, that is, it gave neither the biuret nor the xanthoproteic reactions, but a faint indication of Millon's reaction.

The invertase could not be freed from ash, but the amount present was variable. It always contained nitrogen.

Moreover, Beijerinck (22) proved that an amylase was incapable of replacing either carbohydrate or nitrogenous bodies in a nutritive medium for yeasts or bacteria.

Pekelharing's pepsin, in moderately concentrated solution, gave the majority of protein reactions, but contained no phosphorus, thus disposing of the view that enzymes are nucleo-proteins. The ash was very small, 0·1 per cent. The preparation was lævo-rotatory and very active, *viz.*, 0·001 milligramme in 6 c.c. of 0·2 per cent. HCl dissolved a flake of fibrin in less than twenty hours at 37° C. Perhaps its most interesting property is that it is relatively insoluble in water, but freely soluble in 0·2 per cent. hydrochloric acid.

On the whole it appears that all enzymes have not the same chemical structure, a fact probable enough in itself. Some indeed seem to belong to a class of bodies as yet unknown in chemical science, but containing nitrogen and carbohydrate in their molecules.

When we consider the way in which definite chemical properties diminish more and more as the preparations are purified, we see a certain degree of justification for the view expressed by De Jager (93) and

by Arthus (10), *viz.*, that enzymes are not chemical individuals, but that various kinds of bodies may have conferred upon them properties which cause them to behave like enzymes; so that we have to deal with properties rather than substances. The action, it is stated, can even be exerted at a distance. The experiments brought forward in support of this view are by no means convincing. I have myself repeated one of these, but was unable to obtain the result stated to happen. The experiment is of sufficient interest to warrant description. A solution of pepsin in hydrochloric acid is placed inside a parchment-paper tube and outside of this a solution of hydrochloric acid of the same strength. Cubes of boiled egg-white are then added to both solutions and the vessel left for some days at 38°. Pepsin itself cannot pass out of the tube, and yet, so it was stated, the egg-white in the outer fluid was digested. I found, on the contrary, that these cubes were absolutely intact, although the fluid gave a biuret reaction owing to the diffusion of the products of digestion of those in the inside of the tube. Possibly there may have been minute holes in the tube of the original experiment. A somewhat similar theory has been recently proposed by Barendrecht (12), according to which enzymes act as radioactive bodies, the chemical activities of enzymes being due to radiations.

As already pointed out, inorganic catalysts are definite chemical individuals; there is, therefore, justification for holding that organic catalysts are also bodies of definite composition, at all events until stronger evidence has been brought to the contrary.

Enzymes, in contradistinction to inorganic catalysts, are destroyed by exposure to a temperature below 100° C., but which varies according to conditions; certain enzymes are more sensitive than others. This property is no doubt due to the colloidal nature of these bodies, and is in practice a useful means of detecting whether a substance belongs to this class of bodies or not. If certain changes continue to show themselves in a system after it has been boiled for some time, it may be taken with confidence that they are not due to the presence of an enzyme in it. The converse is not universally true, since some colloidal bodies other than enzymes are coagulated or otherwise altered by heat.

This characteristic of enzymes obviously gives us no help in deciding whether an action is due to an enzyme or to the agency of living cells. Perhaps the distinction is at bottom one of words only, but at present there are many changes known to be produced by living cells, changes of a kind such as no enzymes yet known are able to effect. Moreover, even if all cell-activities are due to enzymes, while the cells are growing there is a growth of enzymes also, so that the course of a reaction would be quite different in the two cases.

The use of antiseptics enables this distinction to be made. The life of protoplasm is impossible in the presence of an amount of antiseptic which has little or no effect on enzymes. At the same time it must be kept in mind that some enzymes are very sensitive to certain antiseptics, such as formaldehyde. On the whole toluene appears to be the least injurious.

Filtration through porous clay or Berkefeld filters serves in some cases to exclude the presence of living cells, but since all colloids are more or less adsorbed by surfaces, considerable loss takes place until the filter is saturated with the enzyme.

CHAPTER IV.

GENERAL METHODS OF PREPARATION AND OF INVESTIGATION.

It is not within the scope of this work to describe in detail the various methods used in the preparation of enzymes; for this, the original memoirs must be consulted. At the same time it will be useful to indicate the general principles on which these methods depend, especially as they throw light on the nature of enzymes.

Since the greater number are found in cells, it is evident that they must be extracted by some means or other. Certain enzymes are found already in solution, so that this operation is unnecessary; such are pepsin in gastric juice, trypsin (or rather its zymogen) in pancreatic juice, erepsin in *Succus entericus* and ptyalin in saliva. The juices of certain fruits, the pine-apple and that of the Papaw tree for example, also contain proteoclastic enzymes.

When tissues or cells are extracted with water, best saturated with toluene or chloroform, it is found that some enzymes are extracted, others are not. In other words, the cell limiting-membrane is made sufficiently permeable by this means to allow such an enzyme as invertase to pass out; but even in this case better yields are obtained if the yeast-cells be allowed to disintegrate by autolysis. Many enzymes in fact cannot be obtained at all unless the cells are disintegrated; such are the zymase of yeast and the various autolytic enzymes of animal tissues. There are, accordingly, two chief classes of methods in use, according as the enzyme is "intracellular" or not.

When mere extraction suffices it is sometimes advisable to use glycerol or weak alcohol in place of water, in order to avoid the deleterious effect of prolonged exposure to the latter; such a case is that of the extraction of trypsin or rather trypsinogen, from the pancreatic cells.

Comparatively little disintegration seems requisite in the case of the enzymes of the alimentary canal, which hydrolyse disaccharides, since short grinding with sand and toluene water in a mortar suffices if the mixture be allowed to stand for some hours. The drying of yeast is efficacious for the extraction of similar enzymes from it, as was found by Emil Fischer (63) and by Croft Hill (86). The yeast is spread out in thin layers on glass or porous plates, and dried as rapidly as possible in a current of warm and dry air; when dry, the yeast may, with advantage, be heated to 60° or 70°, whereby the subsequent extraction by water or weak alkali is facilitated, probably by more effective disintegration. In the dry state enzymes are much more resistant to heat than in the presence of water. The dried yeast obtained above may be kept for a considerable time without losing its properties as an enzyme.

More thorough disintegration is necessary in other cases. There are three chief methods for doing this.

The first one is that used by Buchner (41, p. 58), who was the earliest investigator to obtain the enzyme of alcoholic fermentation. It consists in thorough grinding with sand and kieselguhr in a mortar; the dry mass, or rather thick dough, thus obtained is then exposed to a pressure of 300 atmospheres in a hydraulic press. The kieselguhr is necessary, not only as a filter, but to afford a kind of support to the cell-contents so as to enable the great pressure to squeeze out the fluid from them. Of course the great surface of the kieselguhr adsorbs a considerable part of the enzyme, as shown by the fact that the press-cake from the first operation, by rubbing up again with saline solution and repeating the pressing, gives a further supply of the enzyme.

The second method is that of Rowland (140), who used a kind of toothed wheel kept in very rapid rotation in the mixture of cells and sand. Apparently the grains of sand are driven with great force against the cells and thus break them to pieces. A modification of this method, specially applicable to bacteria, consists in freezing the cells solid by means of liquid air and grinding them in this state in a steel mortar by means of a machine.

The third, and most recent, method may be described as a development of the last. It is due to Wiechowski (169), and was used by this observer in conjunction with Wiener (170) to investigate the enzyme of the liver and kidney which destroys uric acid. It is particularly valuable for animal tissues and consists essentially in first reducing the tissue to a pulp by chopping finely and then pressing through a fine sieve to remove connective tissue, etc. The mass is then spread in thin layers on glass plates and dried as quickly as possible in a current of warmed and dried air. The dry film is then scraped off and ground to an extremely fine powder in toluene in a paint mill. The suspension is filtered by reduced pressure and washed with toluene to remove lipoid substances. On evaporation of the toluene, a fine dry powder is left, which can be kept. To obtain solutions of the enzyme this powder is extracted with water, weak acid or alkali, according to the properties of the enzyme in question, as regards its solubility, etc.

Having by one or other of the methods described obtained a solution, which contains many other things in addition to the enzyme desired, the next step is to purify the latter as far as possible from these foreign substances. Inorganic salts and other diffusible bodies can be removed to a large extent by dialysis, as was done in the case of all three of the preparations of Osborne, of Pekelharing and of Fraenkel and Hamburg mentioned above. It sometimes happens that the solution loses its activity to a greater or less degree during this operation. This is, in some cases, ascribed to diffusion through the parchment-paper and also to destruction of enzyme. There is, however, another possible cause, *viz.*, the removal of a co-enzyme, as we shall see in the eighth chapter, so that it is necessary to examine the diffusate before drawing conclusions.

To remove proteins and certain carbohydrates, a very ingenious method was used by Effront (54, p. 126) and improved upon by Fraenkel and Hamburg in their work on amylase. This may be called the "biological" method. As stated above, it was shown by Beijerinck

that amylase is not a food-stuff for yeast, so that if solutions containing carbohydrate and protein are fermented with yeast, these bodies will be used up and the enzyme will be left behind. In the experiments of Fraenkel and Hamburg the yeast was made nitrogen-hungry by cultivating it in a nitrogen-poor medium. The method is certainly worth trying with other enzymes, especially with the proteoclastic ones, since, if these are proteins in their nature, they should serve as a source of nitrogen to micro-organisms.

Having purified an enzyme solution, by dialysis or otherwise, the enzyme is frequently precipitated by some means or other. Whatever the precipitant may be, prolonged contact with it is deleterious to the enzyme to a greater or less extent. Precipitation by acetone or alcohol and ether seems to be the most innocuous method, but in some cases, as in that of zymase and other intracellular enzymes, the precipitate must be filtered off from the alcohol as quickly as possible.

Saturation with ammonium sulphate is another useful method.

The carrying down of enzymes in adsorbed form with amorphous precipitates is an old method and sometimes is very serviceable. In order that this method may be an effective one, it follows, from what has been said in connection with colloidal adsorption-compounds, that the body to be precipitated and the precipitant should be electrically charged and also of opposite sign, unless an effective amount of electrolyte is present. Since most solid particles in water are electro-negative, the enzyme solution should be first made acid to render it electro-positive. Accordingly, we find that Michaelis and Rona (116, 117 and 118), in their method of freeing liquids from proteins or of precipitation of enzymes by addition of mastic emulsion, first slightly acidulate the liquid, and some enzymes, *e.g.*, trypsin, require an electrolyte in the form of a salt for their precipitation. Jacoby's method of producing a precipitate of uranyl phosphate in an enzyme solution, which is on occasions a valuable one, comes under this head (92, pp. 138 and 139).

If it be desired to evaporate to dryness a solution of an enzyme, this must be carried out under reduced pressure and at as low a temperature as possible. For concentrating such a solution the apparatus of Schulze and Tollens[1] will be found useful. This consists in allowing the solution to trickle along an evacuated glass spiral, kept at 40° or lower. In this way the enzyme is only exposed to the raised temperature for a short time; a very effective evaporation is produced, as I can testify from experience.

In the investigation of the action of enzymes there are two different objects to be attained; the main problem may be the chemical nature of the bodies that are formed, or it may be desired to study the rate of change and the various conditions which affect it. In the former case appropriate chemical methods are, of course, made use of, differing in each case. Although it is not the purpose of this short monograph to give details of the numerous chemical methods available, it is advisable to refer briefly to the method recently introduced by Sörensen (174) on account of its theoretical interest. This method is based on the discovery of Schiff that, by the action of formaldehyde on amino-acids, the NH_2 group is neutralised by conversion into NCH_2. Formaldehyde is

[1] See Lassar-Cohn, *Arbeits Methoden u.s.w.*, 4te Aufl:, Allgem. Teil, p. 92, 1906.

added in excess to a proteolytic digest, and the concentration of carboxyl groups can then be estimated in the usual way by titration with standard alkali. The increase in amino-acids and simple polypeptides during the course of the hydrolysis is determined by this means. In the latter case, since it is of importance to be able to make a large number of observations in a limited time, a physical method, such as that of *optical activity*, will be chosen when such a one is available. Whatever method be selected, it should, naturally, be that one which estimates that particular property which is subject to most change. For instance, in following the course of the hydrolysis of disaccharides, the polarimeter or the copper-reducing power is indicated. When the changes are not large, as in the investigation of reversion effects, Croft Hill's "optical factor" (89, p. 583) gives valuable help; this is the ratio of the optical activity to the copper-reducing power, and since, in the production of a disaccharide from glucose, the former goes up and the latter down, the changes in the optical factor are larger than in either of the components alone. The method also tends to correct errors of estimation. As regards the determination of the *copper-reducing power* of sugars, the only really reliable method is that of Allihn, in its various modifications. The standard method will be found in the work of Adrian Brown (38, p. 78) referred to in the list at the end of this book, while the manner of preparing for sugar-estimation solutions containing enzymes is given in the paper by Aders Plimmer (133, p. 23).

The measurement of optical activity is also useful in the case of some proteoclastic enzymes, especially when acting on pure polypeptides; it has been used for this purpose by Fischer and Abderhalden (65, p. 57) and by Euler (58). It is also available in the case of emulsin acting on glucosides.

Changes of *viscosity* are very marked in the action of proteoclastic enzymes on most proteins, which are, as a rule, in their unaltered condition, bodies with considerable viscosity (Spriggs [146]). The method has its limitations, since it gives but little information as to the essential chemical work of the enzyme. This may be seen by comparing the change of viscosity with the nitrogen-content of the filtrate after precipitation by tannin, in the case of trypsin. It is found that for some time after the change in viscosity has come to a standstill, the production of peptone and amino-acids continues at a considerable rate (13). In other words, the reaction estimated by change of viscosity would appear to have come to an end, while it is actually proceeding at a fair rate. The same thing may be said about other similar changes in physical consistency, such as are at the basis of the methods of Grützner (70) and of Vernon (161, p. 406) with liquefaction of fibrin, of that of Fermi with liquefaction of gelatin and the various forms of Mett's tubes. After the fibrin flakes have disappeared, the protein will be still found to exist in a state which coagulates on boiling. As to gelatin, its capacity of setting when cooled is destroyed with extreme rapidity by trypsin. I found that five or six minutes' action of the enzyme at 40° was enough for the purpose, whereas very little chemical change had taken place in this time, as shown by the small amount of the change in electrical conductivity. The chief use of the above methods is to indicate the presence of a proteoclastic enzyme, or to compare the relative concentrations of two solutions of the same enzyme.

When changes of volume occur in the course of the reaction, *dilatometric* measurements may be made.

Measurements of changes in molecular state would, in many cases, afford valuable indications of the work of the enzyme. Such may be obtained from *freezing-point* (125) or perhaps *vapour-pressure* determinations; but, so far as I am aware, no research of this nature has yet been undertaken.

To return to optical methods, the *refractive index* may be used, but, as a rule, its changes are small in the reactions which concern us here.

On the other hand, the *spectro-photometer* or *colorimeter* has been made frequent use of. The oxidation of the leuco-base of malachite-green to the green pigment itself under the action of peroxidases, as investigated by Czyblarz and v. Fürth (173), is a favourable case for such a method. The course of the change indicated by the biuret reaction has been followed, by Klug (99, p. 43) and by myself (13, pp. 279 and 289), with the aid of the spectro-photometer. In using the method for colour tests certain difficulties have yet to be overcome, with regard to which the original papers must be consulted. It is possible that it may be made available for Millon's and the tryptophane colour reactions.

The last method to be referred to here is that of changes in *electrical conductivity*. Sjöqvist (145) found that protein solutions showed a diminution of this property under the action of pepsin. The fact was confirmed by Oker-Blom (125), who also showed that the action of trypsin was accompanied by a rise in conductivity and advocated the method as of great convenience. It has, notwithstanding, been hitherto used but little in the investigation of enzymes. Victor Henri and Larguier des Bancels (82) have made a few observations with respect to the action of trypsin on gelatin, and I have myself made a somewhat extensive use of it for the general action of the same enzyme (13 and 16). It showed itself to be of special value in this instance, since it was found to follow exactly the same time-course as the nitrogen in the tannic filtrate, the cause of the rise being almost entirely due to the production of peptones and amino-acids (16). The method may also be used for other proteoclastic enzymes acting in alkaline or neutral solutions. The change is more complex in acid solutions since the products of the reaction have a greater affinity for acid than the original substrate has; there is therefore at the beginning a fall of conductivity owing to diminution of hydrion. This subsequently gives place to a rise, but the exact course of the change has not yet been worked out.

The action of lipase on esters of the lower fatty acids may be followed in this manner, since there is a considerable rise in conductivity owing to the formation of free acid.

It is naturally not a good method for enzymes acting on carbohydrates, since there is, as a rule, no production of electrolytes in these reactions. An exception is the hydrolysis of sinigrin by myrosin, in which a good conductor, *viz.*, potassium hydrogen sulphate, is produced.

In the measurement of conductivity, the usual method of Kohlrausch may be used, but it is better to use Whetham's modification

with rotating commutator (168, p. 331), since there is no necessity in this method to use electrodes coated with platinum-black, which has a certain decomposing effect on many substances. The method has also the convenience that ordinary batteries and galvanometer are used.

When comparing the action of different strengths of enzyme solutions, it is advisable to take as the basis of comparison the times taken to effect an equal change, rather than the amounts of change in equal times. This is especially important where the reaction takes place in stages, since only in this manner is it possible to have comparable values. Instances of such reactions are the action of amylase on starch and proteoclastic actions in general. If the reaction has not arrived at the same stage in the cases to be compared, there is the source of error due to the various stages not taking place with the same velocity.

In the case of trypsin, for example, proteoses are produced very rapidly and are again converted fairly rapidly into peptone, while this latter body is, in part, hydrolysed further but more slowly into amino-acids; at the same time some amino-acids are produced from the first, so that the reaction is a very complicated one, and the results obtained at different stages would be very difficult to interpret, unless times of equal change are chosen for comparison.

Another practical question may be touched upon to conclude this chapter. When the reaction has to be stopped at a given stage for the purpose of determining how far it has gone, as is necessary in the use of most of the methods described, with the exception of that of electrical conductivity or, in some cases, the optical activity, one must be able to stop the action of the enzyme by some means. Now it is by no means a matter of indifference how this is done. As will be shown in detail in a later chapter, the activity of enzymes is enormously increased by rise of temperature, although in the end abolished. The method of taking a certain volume of the reacting mixture and heating this to boiling point, or in a steam steriliser, as is frequently done, is liable to be, and in fact has been, the source of errors. It is plain that the solution cannot be heated instantaneously to the destruction temperature of the enzyme, and, during the time taken for this to be attained, the activity of the enzyme is enormously increased. In this way changes take place after the action is supposed to have ceased. If it is requisite that the action should be stopped by heat, the solution may be run in a thin stream into boiling water. If not desirable to dilute the mixture, it may be cooled to 0°, or better, frozen solid and kept so until wanted for investigation. When the addition of chemical reagents is immaterial, this means of stopping the action of an enzyme is most convenient. Ammonia may be added to invertase experiments; in this case it is of use in another way, in that it gets rid of the bi-rotation of glucose, by bringing the glucose system to an equilibrium at once. Alkali may be added to pepsin or acid to trypsin. Of course when a precipitant, such as tannin or phospho-tungstic acid, is used in the further stages of the method it may be added at once to stop the action.

It may be noted that the advantage of the electrical conductivity method is that readings can be taken, by using appropriate vessels, without disturbing the course of the reaction. The same thing applies

to the viscosity method and to the polarimeter method, if a jacketed tube be used to keep the solution at a constant temperature.

Nothing has been said as to the maintenance of a constant temperature in following the course of enzyme-action, important as it is. The best means of doing this can easily be found by consulting such a work as that of Ostwald and Luther on physico-chemical measurements.

CHAPTER V.

REVERSIBILITY OF ENZYME-ACTION.

REFERENCE has already been made in the first chapter to the fact that, in the case of such a reaction as that resulting in the equilibrium between methyl acetate, acetic acid, methyl alcohol and water, both the hydrolysis of the ester and also its formation from the acid and alcohol are accelerated by a catalyst such as hydrochloric acid. If therefore enzymes are to fall into line with other catalysts, they will also accelerate synthetic processes.

We know that many processes of the kind known as reversible, or balanced, reactions take place in the living organism. Particularly obvious are those cases where material is stored up in an insoluble form, like starch or glycogen. These bodies are, under certain conditions, synthesised from sugars and, under other conditions, are hydrolysed back again, when required.

Since the first definite proof of a synthetic process taking place under the influence of an enzyme was brought forward by Croft Hill (86), so many other cases have been discovered that it is no longer necessary to give a list of them. In fact the impression is distinctly given that it is merely a question of finding the proper conditions in order to be able to obtain synthesis from all enzymes.

As regards these conditions the first thing that requires attention is the part played by water. Methyl acetate can be kept indefinitely in a closed bottle without change, but the presence of the smallest amount of water causes the hydrolysis of a part of it, and the greater the proportion of water, the more the reaction takes place in the direction of the formation of acetic acid and alcohol. Stated in another way, the greater the relative concentration of the water component, the nearer the equilibrium-point is to the position of complete hydrolysis.

Amongst enzymes there are many instances where the hydrolysis appears to be complete, invertase for example. But it has been shown by Visser (164, p. 275) that a 0·25N solution of saccharose gave only a rotation of $-3{\cdot}26^{\circ}$ when acted on by invertase until no further change took place, whereas when inverted by acid the final rotation was $-3{\cdot}42^{\circ}$, which is what the reading should be if the solution contained only glucose and fructose. And again, a particular solution containing equal amounts of glucose and fructose had an initial rotation of $-12{\cdot}46^{\circ}$; after the action of invertase for two months the rotation had fallen to $-12{\cdot}29^{\circ}$. A change of this degree means that an equilibrium position exists when about 99 per cent. of the saccharose is hydrolysed, and that, if the products, glucose and fructose, be exposed to the enzyme, a formation of saccharose to this extent takes place. When we remember that the equilibrium position is given by the ratio of the velocity of

the hydrolytic to that of the synthetic process, we see at once how very much the former exceeds the latter. Visser in fact found that, for 0·5N saccharose, the equilibrium-constant, *i.e.*, the ratio of the two velocity-constants, was very nearly 50, so that, since six days are required to attain equilibrium when saccharose of this concentration is acted upon by invertase, about ten months (*i.e.*, fifty times six days) would be needed for the reverse reaction (164, p. 301).

Now it might be thought that a synthesis of so small a degree could not be of much practical importance. This would be an error, as the following considerations will show. Let us take the case of amylase, where a similar reaction, progressing almost to completion, occurs, and let us suppose that no more than 1 per cent. of starch is formed when the enzyme acts upon maltose or dextrin. Since the product is an insoluble body the equilibrium will exist only for a moment, so that more starch will be formed; as the rate of this reaction is slow, as shown above, the amount of starch formed per unit time will not be great, although by no means negligible. The process, it will be noted, is analogous to that of the precipitation of chloride as silver salt. It is most likely, as Croft Hill points out, that the storage of starch in the plant and that of glycogen in the animal are to be explained on these lines (86 and 88).

Moreover, it is not necessary, in order that considerable synthesis may take place when the equilibrium-point is close to that of complete hydrolysis, that the synthetic product should be deposited in an insoluble form; it may be removed from the reacting system by any other means, such as diffusion, into blood-current or elsewhere, or taken up in some other independent reaction.

The simplest case of reversibility is that of lipase acting on esters of lower fatty acids, which was first investigated by Kastle and Loevenhart (95); we will therefore briefly examine this reaction. It may perhaps seem strange that the action of maltase on glucose, in which the synthetic action of enzymes was first discovered by Croft Hill, has not yet been dealt with. The reason for this omission is that the conditions here have turned out to be complicated by the existence of the two optical isomers of the bi-hexose, which is formed, so that the reaction will best be discussed at a later stage.

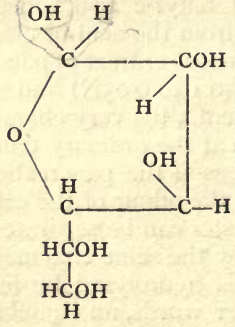
It is quite easy to observe the production of ethyl butyrate when lipase acts on a mixture of ethyl alcohol and butyric acid, since the ester has a characteristic odour, very different from the acid or alcohol. To quote the authors named: "When a fresh aqueous extract of pancreas is treated with a mixture of dilute butyric acid (0·1 to 0·05N) and ethyl alcohol (sufficient to bring the whole to 1·5 per cent.), the very characteristic odour of ethyl butyrate soon develops even at the ordinary temperature and in the presence of antiseptics, whereas if the pancreatic extract is first boiled the mixture never develops the odour of the ester". If the experiment be done on a large scale, the ester can be separated by distillation and can be hydrolysed back again by the same enzyme that produced it. Moreover, when ethyl butyrate is hydrolysed by lipase, the reaction is never complete, so that, in other words, an equilibrium is arrived at. It is of interest that the hydrolysis does not proceed so far when effected by lipase as when effected by hydrochloric acid, as has been recently shown by Dietz (48, p. 320). As was pointed out in

the first chapter of this book, this circumstance does not mean that the enzyme does not follow the general laws of catalysis, but that its mode of action is by the formation of some kind of compound between enzyme and ester on the one side and between enzyme and products on the other side.

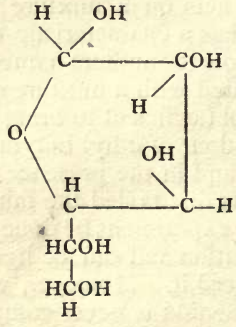
Now pancreatic lipase hydrolyses the higher fats as well as the simpler esters; synthetic production of higher esters of glycerol would therefore be expected to take place and has been actually observed; in fact, Hanriot (72) has obtained by means of lipase a butyric ester of glycerol, monobutyrin, and Pottevin has obtained mono- and tri-olein (135).

The physiological importance of this reversibility of lipase-action is pointed out by Loevenhart (111) himself. In the process of digestion and absorption of fat there is no doubt that fat globules are found in the cells of the intestinal mucous membrane and that fat taken as food is hydrolysed in the lumen of the intestine. There must therefore be some mechanism by which the products of hydrolysis are resynthesized in the cells after absorption. It is obvious that if a lipase were present in these cells, it would be capable of considerable synthetic action, since the fat produced, being insoluble, is deposited out of the reacting system in the form of droplets. Loevenhart has in point of fact been able to obtain a lipase from intestinal mucous membrane of the pig after thoroughly washing away the pancreatic enzymes. A similar enzyme was also obtained from the liver and other places where fat storage occurs. In all these cases, when the blood and lymph bathing the cells becomes poor in fatty acid and glycerol, either owing to fat being stored elsewhere or to its being used up by oxidation, as in starvation, the lipase restores equilibrium by effecting hydrolysis of the fat which had previously been stored up.

Before proceeding to the more difficult cases of synthetic action on carbohydrates, it is necessary to say a few words about the stereochemistry of the glucosides. These bodies are recognised as having the internal anhydride structure of a γ-lactone. Glucose itself has the same structure and is therefore capable of existence in two optically isomeric forms, known as α- and β-glucose, which differ from one another in the relative positions of the H and OH of the terminal aldehyde group as shown in the diagrams:—



α-glucose.



β-glucose.

One of these two forms, which we call, for convenience, the α-form, has a greater specific rotation than the β-form. In glucose in the dry

state the first preponderates; when dissolved in water the rotation is at first higher than after standing, and this decreases until a state of equilibrium is finally established. According to Tanret, in a 10 per cent. solution in equilibrium there exists 3·7 per cent. of the *a*-form and 6·3 per cent. of the *β*-form. It was found by Emil Fischer (64) that, when a solution of glucose in methyl alcohol, in which presumably both forms of the sugar are present, is acted on by hydrochloric acid, two methyl-glucosides are formed. One of these, the *a*-form, corresponds to the left-hand formula of the two above, in which the hydrogen of the uppermost OH is replaced by CH_3, while the *β*-methylglucoside is similarly formed from the other.

In all yeasts which are able to ferment maltose, as shown by Fischer, there is present an enzyme which is able to hydrolyse the maltose as a necessary preliminary to the action of zymase. This enzyme is known as maltase and is not identical with invertase. Now it is found that maltase will hydrolyse the *a*-methylglucoside, but not the *β*-form, whereas emulsin, the enzyme found in bitter-almonds and elsewhere, which acts upon most of the natural glucosides, such as amygdalin, salicin, etc., will not touch the *a*-glucoside, but readily hydrolyses the *β*-form. The conclusion is that maltose has the structure of an *a*-glucoside and that the natural glucosides, such as salicin, are *β*-glucosides.

If maltase be allowed to act upon a strong solution of glucose we should expect that, since this enzyme hydrolyses maltose to glucose, if any synthetic process takes place, maltose would be formed, and this was in fact what Croft Hill (86) at first believed to take place. It turned out, however, on separating the bi-hexose which was produced, that it consisted only partially of maltose, the rest being, as supposed, a new sugar, revertose (89). Emmerling (56) showed later that this "revertose" was actually isomaltose, and Frankland Armstrong (5, vii., p. 598) has confirmed this. What then is isomaltose? It is a bi-hexose which is hydrolysed by emulsin with the production of two molecules of glucose, so that we are justified in regarding it as the optical isomer of maltose, *viz.*, the *β*-glucose-glucoside. Now according to the hypothesis first put forward by van't Hoff (90, p. 12) and accepted by Croft Hill, an enzyme only synthesizes the same body which under other conditions it hydrolyses. Moreover, this is the only possible hypothesis if enzymes are to be brought into line with other catalysts. It is therefore of some importance to examine more closely the facts as far as we know them. Isomaltose is not hydrolysed by maltase, but by emulsin; it is therefore, to begin with, rather startling and suggestive that, in Croft Hill's experiments, the synthetic products are almost completely hydrolysed back by the same enzyme preparation that produced them. For example, a 45 per cent. solution of glucose was acted on by yeast extract until its "optical factor" (see earlier, Chapter IV.) had been raised from 0·525 to 0·676, which indicates a synthesis of 15 per cent. reckoned as maltose. After boiling, 10 c.c. of this solution was diluted to 200 c.c., some of the original yeast extract was added and it was allowed to stand at 28° for ten days. The optical factor was now reduced to 0·537, indicating almost complete hydrolysis, while a control with the same amount of boiled enzyme solution showed only a reduction to 0·675 (89, p. 585). Further, it was found that if the synthetical products were fermented by a pure

maltase-containing yeast, such as *Saccharomyces Ellipsoideus I.*, only a part of the bi-hexose was hydrolysed and fermented, presumably the maltose alone. It seems to me that the explanation of the production of isomaltose lies in these facts. In the first place it is to be noted that the enzyme solutions used were made from ordinary brewer's yeast, and that these extracts hydrolysed practically the whole of the synthetical products, whereas pure maltase only acted on a part. Croft Hill himself suggested the presence of a mixture of enzymes in his extracts, and since that time it has been shown that many yeasts contain emulsin (Henry and Auld [85]); in fact ordinary pressed-yeast will rapidly hydrolyse amygdalin at a temperature of 38°, as can easily be verified. The conclusion to be drawn is that the formation of isomaltose can be satisfactorily explained as being due to emulsin and that of maltose by the presence of maltase.

Again, Fischer and Armstrong (188) found that, by the action of Kefir-lactase on a mixture of glucose and galactose, isolactose and not lactose was formed. On referring to the table given on p. 3151 of their paper, the significant fact will be noticed that this synthetic product was hydrolysed, in dilute solution, by the same enzyme, or mixture of enzymes (Kefir-lactase), that produced it under other conditions. It is clear, therefore, that the enzyme preparation contained a body capable of hydrolysing isolactose, and there is no reason to suppose that the synthesis was effected under the influence of any other enzyme.

A quite different point of view has been taken by Frankland Armstrong (5, vii.), who regards it as the rule that an enzyme synthesizes exactly those bodies which it does not hydrolyse. Now it seems to me that such a view is calculated only to throw the whole subject into confusion; but, apart from this, there are many reasons for not accepting it. It was shown by Croft Hill that in the action of maltase on glucose an equilibrium-point was reached, in the conditions under which he worked, when about 15 per cent. of the glucose had been synthesized to the bi-hexose and that the reaction then ceased. If the synthetic body were incapable of hydrolysis by the enzymes present, there is no conceivable reason why the reaction should cease until the whole of the glucose is converted, because, as it is not acted upon, it is withdrawn from the sphere of action as soon as it is formed. Granting that the body isolated by Frankland Armstrong from the action of yeast extract on glucose was isomaltose, it must be remembered that the yeast used was ordinary brewer's yeast, which was shown by Henry and Auld to contain emulsin.

This explanation of the results of experiments on synthesis of bi-hexoses may be objected to for the reason that the amount of maltose found by Croft Hill was much less than that of "revertose" or isomaltose. The cause of this fact is no doubt that given by the experimenter himself, *viz.*, that the yeast used contained amylase or dextrinase, under the synthetic action of which the maltose was partially converted into dextrin; bodies of this nature did in fact make their appearance in the process of separating the products.

The conclusion we come to is, then, that there is no cogent evidence that enzymes produce by synthesis any bodies different from those which they hydrolyse.

The suggestion has been made that synthetic processes are brought about by special enzymes, which do not hydrolyse. As yet no enzyme having this property has been prepared. We have seen, moreover, that the hypothesis of the existence of such bodies is unnecessary in the present state of our knowledge and, therefore, according to the canons of scientific method, must be rejected. It is difficult also to reconcile such a view with the facts concerning the equilibrium position. In all the experiments in which attention was directed to this point, such as those of Croft Hill, Visser and Dietz, it was found that this equilibrium-point was the same under the same conditions of concentration, etc., whatever the amount of the enzyme used, and that different preparations also gave the same result. If the enzyme preparation were a mixture of a hydrolysing and a synthesizing enzyme, it seems extremely unlikely that the two bodies should always be present in the same relative proportions. Again, it is found that synthesis takes place chiefly under conditions in which, according to the manner of reversible reactions, it would be expected to occur, *viz.*, high concentration of the products of hydrolysis.

A somewhat peculiar position is taken by Euler (59 and 60) on the strength of an experiment of Beitzke and Neuberg (23), who showed that on subcutaneous injection of emulsin into a rabbit, antiemulsin was formed and that this body was able to synthesize a disaccharide from glucose. Further investigation of this rather surprising result is necessary before forming any opinion as to its meaning. In any case, it seems premature to assume, as Euler has done, that antibodies in general are the synthesizing enzymes of the hypothesis of the previous paragraph.

Reference has already been made to the fact that the final equilibrium is not the same in the case of enzyme-action as in catalysis by acids. This indicates that the enzyme itself in some way enters into the components of that equilibrium. Reasons will be given subsequently for holding that there are compounds of a certain kind, probably of the nature of adsorption, between enzyme and substrate and between enzyme and products. As Euler points out, if the formation and decomposition of the former set does not proceed at the same rate as the similar changes in the latter set, it follows that the enzyme will remain as a constituent of the system in equilibrium. Tammann had already pointed out this phenomenon and showed that by adding more enzyme to a system in equilibrium a further change could be caused to take place. This result was obtained in the case of the hydrolysis of amygdalin by emulsin. I have myself found the statement to hold for trypsin. Similarly, an increase of hydrolysis was obtained in a stationary system by altering any of the other conditions of the equilibrium, such as addition of more amygdalin, removal of products of reaction, raising the temperature or dilution. It can thus be seen that the stationary condition was one of true equilibrium and that to call it a "false" equilibrium is incorrect (152, 153, 154; see also 33, p. 194, and 95).

The facts just referred to show that the inactivity of the enzyme was not due to destruction, since it could be made active again by altering the conditions. On the other hand some enzymes are so unstable that they become destroyed in the course of the reaction. Partial destruction occurs even in the case of emulsin, as shown by Tammann

(154); and complete destruction of trypsin occurs when the action is allowed to go on for a long time. There is then both a reversible and an irreversible state of inactivity of an enzyme, the former only being an equilibrium.

Nothing has yet been said as to synthetic action on the part of proteoclastic enzymes. As pointed out by Leathes (110, p. 132), the facts as to protein synthesis in the organism distinctly indicate a reversible enzyme-action. The experiments of Loewi (114), taken in conjunction with those of Henriques and Hansen (83), have shown that animals are able to maintain their nitrogen-content on a diet in which the only nitrogenous bodies are the products of a prolonged tryptic and ereptic digestion; but that the products of acid hydrolysis are unable to take their place. To quote the words of Leathes: "There appears to be some kind of linkage between certain groups in the protein molecules which is not uncoupled by the enzymes in the body, and that when it is uncoupled, as in acid hydrolysis, it is impossible for it to be coupled up again in the body. This combination, which the cells can neither take to pieces nor put together again, must be present, in order that the other component parts of the protein molecule may gather about it and group themselves round it when the synthesis of portein is to occur. These considerations appear to suggest that the synthetic processes here involved may be the work of the same agent as the hydrolytic, the limitations in its hydrolytic power determining the limitations of its synthetic activity, as in reversible zymolysis."

More direct evidence of protein synthesis is not easy to get. The conditions are undoubtedly very complex, so that it is perhaps not to be expected that completely satisfactory results will be obtained until the necessary conditions are better understood. Certain results have been described by A. E. Taylor (155) and by Brailsford Robertson (138). The former obtained a synthesis of a protamine by the action of trypsin on the products of a tryptic digestion of the same substance, while the latter obtained "paranuclein" by the action of pepsin on the products of a prolonged peptic digestion of caseinogen; but, considering the somewhat ill-defined nature of paranuclein and the bodies related to it, this latter result cannot be regarded as of great import.

The bodies known as "plasteins" are in all probability to be looked upon as results of synthetic action. Danilewski (45) showed that rennet preparations produced a precipitate in concentrated solutions of Witte's peptone, while subsequent workers found that the same effect was produced by pepsin and papain. These bodies are formed under such conditions that a reverse reaction would be expected to be most favoured; the amount found was greater the higher the concentration of the peptone solution used. It does not appear, however, that these plasteins are necessarily the same as the original protein from which the peptone was made; the plastein from caseinogen peptone does not, on acid hydrolysis, give quantitatively the same result in amino-acids as the casein itself. This is not surprising, when we consider the variety of possible hydrolytic products.

A concentrated solution of products of tryptic digestion of caseinogen also shows a diminution of electrical conductivity under the action of trypsin, which seems to indicate a synthetic process.

Experiments made by Abderhalden and Rona (2, p. 35) to detect

whether there was any synthesis of polypeptides from their constituent amino-acids under the influence of tissue enzymes led to no result.

Although the direct evidence on the subject of protein-synthesis is at present meagre, the phenomena seen in trypsin digests are quite what would be expected if equilibrium in a reversible reaction be the explanation of what takes place. Such phenomena are (1) retardation due to accumulation of the products of the reaction, (2) recommencement of a reaction which had apparently come to an end, if the products be removed by dialysis, or other means, or if their concentration be reduced by dilution. In the case of this enzyme, however, the products act also in another way in diminishing the rate of change, namely, by reducing the alkalinity of the solution, as will be shown in a later chapter.

CHAPTER VI.

THE VELOCITY OF REACTION AND THE VARIOUS CONDITIONS AFFECTING IT.

THE function of enzymes, as catalysts, being to change the rate of reactions, it follows that the study of their action, apart from that of the nature of the products formed, consists essentially in the investigation of the velocity of reactions and the factors which have an influence upon this.

In the discussion of this problem a certain amount of use must be made of mathematical forms of expression. Since there is a tendency to decry the introduction of formulæ into biological science, a few words are advisable upon the value of such a mode of treatment.

Although it may be perfectly true that by mathematical analysis no new facts are discovered, it is none the less true that the expression of experimental results in a formula shows their relation to known laws in a way which is otherwise very difficult or impossible to attain. Further, as Arrhenius (9, p. 7), points out, such a procedure enables one to see whether all the factors have been taken into account; instances of this will appear in the course of the present chapter. Even an empirical formula may assist in deciding whether irregularities are due merely to experimental error or otherwise.

The law of mass-action tells us that a reaction proceeds at a rate proportional to the concentration of the reacting molecules. The number of times per unit of time that one molecule encounters another, with which it can enter into reaction, is obviously related to the number present in a given volume, that is, to the concentration. So that when the reaction can be expressed as the change in concentration of one kind of molecules, the rate of change at any moment is proportional to the amount of this substance still left undecomposed. Such a case is the hydrolysis of saccharose under the action of hydrion in dilute solution. It is true, of course, that for each molecule of sugar inverted a molecule of water is taken up, but as the reaction is taking place in excess of water this factor is not appreciable. If we call x the amount of sugar inverted in the time t, the average rate of the change during the time t is $\frac{x}{t}$, and if C is the concentration of saccharose at this time, the velocity is proportional to it, *i.e.*,

$$\frac{x}{t} = k\mathrm{C}$$

k being some constant.

But, owing to the continuous hydrolysis of the sugar, its concentration (C) is not the same at any two consecutive periods of time, so that

the above equation is only correct when t is so short that no appreciable change has taken place in the sugar-content. This is expressed in the notation of the differential calculus thus :—

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k\mathrm{C}$$

or, since x is proportional to C,

$$-\frac{d\mathrm{C}}{dt} = k\mathrm{C}$$

the minus sign indicating that C (= concentration of saccharose) is diminishing. The symbols dx and dt are to be taken as wholes, and simply mean that x and t are to be taken so small that the velocity has not changed during the time t.

A reaction such as this, which can be adequately treated as consisting of the change of concentration of one substance, is called a "unimolecular" reaction and is expressed by the equation given.

Now it is clear that to make any practical use of the equation some means must be devised in order to render it applicable to data in which the time is sufficiently long to be measured; such a process is known as "integration". It is impossible in the limits of this book to describe the method in detail, and the reader is referred to the Introduction to Mellor's *Chemical Statics and Dynamics* for further information. Suffice it to say that the process is an artifice by which an exceedingly large number of exceedingly small quantities are added together, so that, *e.g.*, all the values of $\frac{dx}{dt}$ during the space of ten minutes are added together. The change of concentration in such times can be determined by some one of the methods previously described.

If it be called to mind that the kind of process with which we have to deal is one where the velocity at any given moment depends on that of the moment preceding, and that such a process when plotted out as a curve forms a logarithmic curve, that is a curve such that one set of co-ordinates is a series of numbers and the other set the logarithms of these numbers, it may help us to understand why the integral of our differential equation has a logarithmic form. This integral may be put in various forms, but for practical use the following form is the most appropriate one for enzyme work, in which the initial and end points are apt to be uncertain :—

$$k = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \log \text{nat} \frac{\mathrm{C}_1}{\mathrm{C}_2}$$

where k is the velocity-constant of the original equation and C_1 and C_2 the concentrations of the substrate at the times t_1 and t_2 respectively, reckoned from the commencement of the reaction. As will be seen, any two determinations during the course of the reaction can be used for the calculation of the value of k.

Another form, from which, in fact, the above is derived and which is often useful, is

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \log \text{nat} \frac{a}{a - x}$$

in which t is the time which has elapsed since the beginning of the reaction, a is the initial concentration of the substrate and x is the amount

of products formed during the time t, so that $a-x$ is the substrate-concentration at the end of the time t.

The following table will serve to show the kind of values obtained in a unimolecular reaction, *viz.*, the inversion of cane-sugar by acid; it will be seen that the velocity-constant, as calculated by the above equation, is practically the same throughout, within the limits of experimental error:—

Time in minutes.	Rotation.	Velocity-constant.
0	46·75°	0·001330
30	41·00°	1332
60	35·75°	1352
90	30·75°	1379
120	26·00°	1321
150	22·00°	1371
210	15·00°	1465
330	2·75°	1463
510	−7·00°	1386
630	−10·00°	
∞	−18·75°	

Now suppose that, instead of using acid, the enzyme invertase had been employed and the velocity-constant calculated by the same formula, we obtain the following results (V. Henri [79, p. 55]):—

Time in minutes.	Proportion inverted $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$.	Velocity-constant.
66	0·084	0·00058
168	0·220	64
334	0·426	72
488	0·581	77
696	0·746	85
1,356	0·952	97

The constant shows a steady *rise*.

Take now a corresponding series of values from the experiments of Frankland Armstrong (5, ii., p. 506) on the hydrolysis of milk-sugar by lactase:—

Time in hours.	Velocity-constant.
1	0·0640
2	0·0543
3	0·0460
5	0·0310
24	0·0129

In this case, unlike that of invertase, there is a steady *fall* in the values of the velocity-constant.

Another case is that of trypsin, the following table being taken from an experiment of my own:—

1st	10 minutes	$k=0·0079$
2nd	,,	0·0046
3rd	,,	0·0032
4th	,,	0·0022
5th	,,	0·0016
7th	,,	0·0009
9th	,,	0·0007

Here, again, there is a marked diminution in the values of k as calculated by the simple unimolecular formula.

What is the explanation of these disagreements with the said law?

In the first place it must be noted that cases in which the velocity is greater at any given time than that calculated by the unimolecular formula are unusual; we will therefore consider first the opposite case, which is that found to apply to most enzymes.

The contrast between the three cases dealt with will be made clearer if they are put in the form of curves, as is done in Fig. 2.

In this figure curve A is that of the action of invertase, taken from one of Victor Henri's experiments; the ordinates are given by the numbers on the left of the figure and represent proportions per cent. inverted; curve B is the true logarithmic one of acid inversion, and curve C is that of the changes in electrical conductivity in the action of trypsin on caseinogen, taken from one of my own experiments, the ordinates being given in gemmhos (= reciprocal megohms) on the right of the figure. The numbers on the axis of abscissæ denote hours and apply to all the curves.

It is found by experiment that in many cases the enzyme itself disappears in the course of its action. Since the amount of the catalysis is always in direct proportion to the concentration of the catalyst, although, as we shall see, not always in linear proportion, a gradual de-

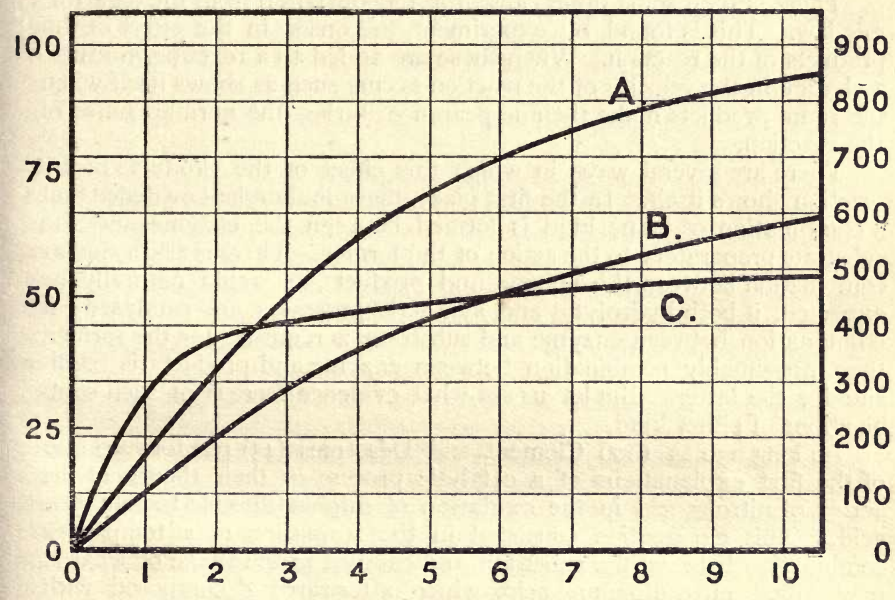


FIG. 2.

struction of the enzyme would lead to a slowing of the reaction greater than that due to the diminished concentration of the substrate. We have already seen that in fairly pure solution most enzymes are unstable, especially at a temperature of 38°, but that, on the other hand, in the presence of their substrates or products they are much more stable. Trypsin is one of the most unstable of enzymes when these protecting influences are not present; Vernon (162, p. 378) found that 70 per cent. was destroyed in 0·4 per cent. sodium carbonate solution in an hour. However, in an actual digestion mixture I found, in a series of experiments made in the manner given by V. Henri (80, pp. 302-303), that no diminution of the activity of the enzyme could be detected up to six hours in the conditions of the experiment from which the data of the table above were obtained, and very little up to seven hours. The method was as follows: in order to have all the other conditions, with

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exception of the enzyme, constant, at various stages in the course of a series of determinations of the electrical conductivity of a reacting mixture of caseinogen and a known initial concentration of trypsin, samples were removed and immediately immersed in small flasks in boiling water, in order to destroy the enzyme. To each of these trypsin was then added in the amount requisite to make the concentration the same as it was at the beginning; the rate of change was now compared with that of the original solution at the same stage. If the samples with fresh enzyme showed a greater rate of change than the main digest at the same stage, it is obvious that there was less enzyme present in the latter than had been originally put in, since all other conditions were identical. The results showed that the destruction of enzyme was not the chief cause of the falling off of activity, since there was no appreciable destruction up to eight hours. Similar results were obtained by Tammann in the case of emulsin.

There is then some other cause for the deviation from the logarithmic law. This is found, by experiment, to consist in the effect of the products of the reaction. When these are added to a reacting mixture, a change in the velocity of the reaction occurs such as shows itself when the same products make their appearance during the normal course of the reaction.

There are several ways in which this effect of the products of the reaction shows itself. In the first place, there is abundant evidence that a combination of some kind is formed between the enzyme and the substrate preparatory to the action of the former. There is also a similar combination between the enzyme and products, as would naturally be expected, if both hydrolytic and synthetic processes are catalysed; if combination between enzyme and substrate is requisite for the former, then presumably combination between enzyme and products is requisite for the latter. But let us see what evidence there is of such combinations of either kind.

As long ago as 1806 Clément and Désormes (43) put forward one of the first explanations of a catalytic process in their theory of the action of nitrous acid in the oxidation of sulphur dioxide to sulphuric acid. This explanation consisted in the formation of a temporary combination between the substrate and catalyst in the shape of what is now called nitrosulphonic acid, which afterwards decomposed with formation of sulphuric acid and regeneration of the catalyst. The actual proof of such intermediate combinations has only been given in more recent times by Brode (36), as already mentioned. A similar course of events is also now regarded as the most acceptable theory of the action of enzymes.

The enzyme appears as a rule to enter into a state of association with some particular molecular grouping in the substrate, so that, if this is an uncommon grouping, the enzyme will be very "specific"; thus invertase enters into relation only with fructose, maltase only on bodies having the structure of the *a*-glucosides and so on. Such an intimate correlation is particularly well seen in the case of the various yeast-enzymes acting on disaccharides, which were investigated by Emil Fischer, and which led him to formulate his famous simile of the "lock-and-key" relationship (63, p. 2992). This implies a very close similarity in configuration between enzyme and substrate, and since, as we have

seen, it applies also to optical opposites, it makes it probable that the enzymes in question are themselves optically active. There is, moreover, evidence that other enzymes are optically active. The work of Dakin (44) on hydrolysis of optically active esters by the lipase of liver affords evidence on this point as well as on the general question of combination. It was found that, when the optically inactive mixture of the two esters of mandelic acid was acted on by this enzyme, the dextro-component was hydrolysed more rapidly than the lævo-component. In this way it happened that the percentage of dextro-mandelic acid in the products became greater at first than that of the lævo-acid, so that the mixture was optically active; as the reaction proceeded the relative amounts approximated more and more, until finally both were present in equal quantity and the mixture became again optically inactive. These facts can only be satisfactorily explained on the hypothesis that the enzyme itself is optically active and forms addition compounds with the esters. As Dakin puts the matter: "The dextro- and lævo-components of the inactive ester first combine with the enzyme, but the latter is assumed to be an optically active asymmetric substance, so that the rates of combination of the enzyme with the d- and l-esters are different. The second stage in the reaction consists in the hydrolysis of the complex molecules of (enzyme + ester). Since the complex molecule (enzyme + d-ester) would not be the optical opposite of (enzyme + l-ester), the rate of change in the two cases would again be different. Judging by analogy with other reactions one might anticipate that the complex molecule which is formed with the greater velocity would be more rapidly decomposed. In the present case it would appear that the dextro-component of the inactive mandelic ester combines more readily with the enzyme than the lævo-component does, and that the complex molecules (d-ester + enzyme) are hydrolysed more rapidly than (l-ester + enzyme), so that if the hydrolysis be incomplete dextro-acid is found in solution and the residual ester is lævo-rotatory." I would, in passing, call attention to the fact that in these experiments, unlike the case of emulsin acting on the methyl glucosides, the lipase does not show itself to be capable of acting on one of the two optical isomers only; it hydrolyses both but at unequal rates. This circumstance, on the face of it, looks more like a kind of combination approximating to a physical type rather than to chemical union in the strict sense.[1]

That there is a marked "affinity" for certain optically active groups is shown by the work of Fischer and his coadjutors (65), Abderhalden and others, on the relation of trypsin to di- and polypeptides. Without entering into details, it must suffice to say here that it is impossible at present to give any general rule as to which of these compounds is hydrolysed by trypsin; only compounds of naturally occurring amino-acids are attacked, and amongst these there is a preference shown for those containing tyrosine or leucine and, in a somewhat less degree, for those containing alanine. At the same time, many curious preferences are to be observed, for example, alanyl-glycine is hydrolysed, but glycyl-alanine is not, l-leucyl-l-leucine is attacked, but neither l-leucyl-d-leucine nor d-leucyl-l-leucine is, and so on. For further details as to this

[1] See Note D.

problem, the monograph on the amino-acids by Dr. Aders Plimmer, in this series, must be consulted.

Further evidence upon the combination of enzyme and substrate was afforded by the observation of O'Sullivan and Tompson (129) in 1890. They found that invertase will withstand uninjured a temperature 25° higher in the presence of cane-sugar than in its absence. As they point out, it is difficult to see how this could happen unless the enzyme entered into some kind of union with the sugar.

Another phenomenon, which is impossible to explain except on the hypothesis of a combination of this kind, is the law of the reaction-velocity in the initial stages of certain enzyme-actions when low concentrations of the enzyme are used. Duclaux (50, 52) found that, under these conditions, the rate of change, in the case of invertase, did not follow the law of mass-action, but that the amount of cane-sugar inverted was directly proportional to the time of action, or, in other words, that the same quantity was hydrolysed in the second ten minutes as that hydrolysed in the first ten minutes; the curve instead of being logarithmic, became a straight line. In 1902 Adrian Brown (37) showed that, when cane-sugar solutions of varying concentrations were hydrolysed under the influence of invertase, in the early stages of the reaction the amount inverted in equal times was nearly the same in all. According to the law of mass-action these amounts should have been proportional to the concentrations of the substrate. In order to explain this result, Adrian Brown assumed that not only is there formed a compound of enzyme and sugar, but that this exists for an appreciable time; consequently a definite quantity of the enzyme can only effect a limited number of complete molecular changes in a given time; whatever the available mass of the substrate may be, if it is greater than the amount of enzyme which is present and with which it can enter into combination, no increase in the amount changed is possible. If the ratio of the enzyme to the cane-sugar be greater than a certain value the amount of the latter hydrolysed is directly proportional to the concentration, as the logarithmic law requires.

This question is further discussed in a paper by Horace Brown and Glendinning (39) on the relations of starch and amylase. They point out that, when the concentration of the enzyme is very small relatively to that of the starch, in the early stages of the reaction, as long as this excess of substrate remains unhydrolysed, the amount of starch per unit volume will be very large compared with the amount of the combination of starch and enzyme. So long, therefore, as the concentration of the unchanged substrate remains very large in relation to that of the combination, the latter will remain nearly constant in amount and equal amounts of starch will be hydrolysed in equal times, the curve being a straight line. Subsequently, when the concentration of the starch has been much reduced, the amount of the combination and consequently the hydrolysis of the sugar will follow more closely the law of mass-action. It is pointed out also that this explanation is in agreement with experimental facts.

Similar results were obtained by Frankland Armstrong (5, ii., p. 508) in his work on lactase, maltase and emulsin. The following numbers give the amounts of milk-sugar hydrolysed in forty-six hours

by a very small amount of lactase acting on different strengths of the solution of sugar:—

Solutions containing	Proportion Hydrolysed.	Actual Weight.
10 per cent.	22·2	2·22
20 ,,	10·9	2·18
30 ,,	7·7	2·21

Experiments in which the proportion of enzyme present was large relatively to the concentration of the sugar gave a different result.

Milk-sugar per 100 c.c.	Amount Changed in Three Hours.	Velocity-constant.
1·0 gramme	0·185	0·0296
0·5 ,,	0·098	0·0298
0·2 ,,	0·0416	0·0337

The amount hydrolysed was in exact ratio to the concentration of the sugar, while the velocity-constant was nearly the same in all.

In some cases, as mentioned previously, such as those of emulsin on amygdalin and trypsin on caseinogen, it has been noticed that, when the reaction appears to be at an end, the addition of more substrate causes a further progress of the reaction, which shows that the enzyme was in some way bound up in the constituents of the equilibrium. That the cessation of change was not due to exhaustion of the substrate is shown by the fact that addition of more enzyme also produced a further hydrolysis.

When we come to examine the evidence for combination between enzyme and products it is found that it is of a similar nature to that just dealt with, but perhaps less direct.

O'Sullivan and Tompson (129), in the work above mentioned, showed that invertase was protected from the action of heat by products of the inversion of cane-sugar, as well as by the sugar itself. Trypsin is much more stable in the presence of either substrate or products than alone. This was shown for peptone by Starling and myself (18) and for amino-acids by Vernon (163, p. 354).

There is no doubt that, in the case of the sucroclastic enzymes, as investigated by Frankland Armstrong (5, iii., p. 520), there is a special retarding influence exerted by the respective products of the enzymes, lactase, emulsin, maltase and invertase, on the rates of hydrolysis by these enzymes, an effect which is not shown by other sugars. For example, fructose retards invertase, but has no effect on any one of the other enzymes, galactose has very little effect on maltase, but considerable retarding action on lactase.

Now these results can partly be explained by the reversibility of the reactions. If we examine the data given by the author we notice that, while both of the products have an action of the kind in question, the effect of one is usually more marked than that of the other. This was believed to be due to the fact that the enzyme in each case has the pro-

perty of combining in a special manner with a particular sugar, and by this means is withdrawn from the sphere of action. An interesting fact in this connection is that the action of emulsin on milk-sugar is retarded by *a*-methylglucoside which is not attacked by the enzyme, showing that an enzyme is able to form some kind of union with a sugar although it may not be close enough to hydrolyse it. From the consideration of relations of this kind, it appears that these sugar-splitting enzymes enter into relation with their substrates along nearly the whole of the molecule, but that a small degree of misfit, so to speak, prevents actual hydrolysis. To take the cases of the two methylglucosides and their relations to maltase and emulsin respectively, the state of affairs may be represented by the diagrams below (Fig. 3), in which it will be seen that emulsin, for example, is only "out of harmony" with the *a*-glucoside at the extreme top of the figure, yet, as we know, this is sufficient to prevent its action. It must be understood that these figures,

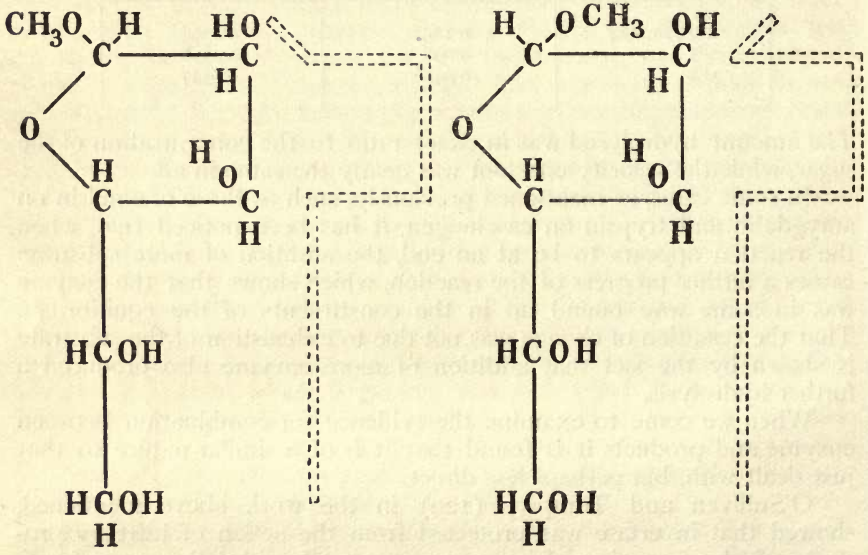

Fig. 3.

being only in one plane, cannot represent the real shape of the molecules, so that they must be taken merely as a kind of shorthand to express the experimental facts.

Results of a similar nature were obtained by Abderhalden and Gigon (1) in the case of the action of yeast press-juice on glycyl-l-tyrosine. The addition of the amino-acids d-alanine, d-valine, l-leucine, l-tyrosine, tryptophane and d-glutamic acid, which are constituents of polypeptides hydrolysed by the enzyme, were found to retard the reaction; but l-alanine and d-leucine have no effect. In other words, amino-acids, which are found in bodies upon which the enzyme acts, are able to enter into a combination of such a kind with the enzyme that this is withdrawn from the reacting system.

Tammann (152) showed that the action of emulsin on amygdalin was retarded by any of the products of reaction, and I have myself recently found that the action of the same enzyme on arbutin (hydroqui-

none-glucoside) is retarded by both glucose and by hydroquinone and, indeed, to very nearly the same degree by both. A 0·2N solution of arbutin was hydrolysed by emulsin at 37·5° to the extent of 26·6 per cent. in twenty-five hours; a similar solution, to which hydroquinone had been added to an amount such as to make the solution 0·1N, showed a change of only 15 per cent.; another similar one, with glucose in place of hydroquinone, showed 13·5 per cent. hydrolysis, while a fourth which was 0·05N in both glucose and hydroquinone was hydrolysed to 13·25 per cent. Considering the great number of different glucosides which are attacked by emulsin it is very difficult to believe that the enzyme is able to enter into relation with the non-sugar part of all these bodies, which have such varied chemical constitution. If the phenomena can be explained in another way it is obviously to be preferred.

So far as we know, all the reactions catalysed by enzymes are reversible, differing only as to the position of equilibrium; in some instances, as that of invertase, the equilibrium-point is so near that of complete hydrolysis that it needs careful investigation to detect that the latter is not quite complete. To return for a moment to the typical case of acid, alcohol and ester, represented by the equation—ester + water $\leftrightharpoons$ acid + alcohol, let us suppose that we start with ester and water alone, with a lipase as a catalyst. At the commencement, the reaction of hydrolysis will be rapid, while the reverse reaction of ester formation will be zero; as soon, however, as any perceptible amount of acid and alcohol are formed, the synthetic reaction will begin, at first very slowly but gradually gaining in rate as the concentration of the hydrolytic products increases, while the hydrolytic reaction will become slower as the concentration of the substrate diminishes, until finally the rates of the two opposite reactions are equal and equilibrium is established. Now if we direct our attention to the hydrolytic process alone, we see that it is more and more counteracted by the opposite process as the reaction proceeds, so that the actual values obtained in an experiment are really the differences between two opposite reactions. As Benjamin Moore (120, p. 79) rightly points out, this reverse reaction will show itself as a slowing of the hydrolytic process to a greater and greater degree as equilibrium is approached, even in those cases where the hydrolysis is practically complete.

The actual velocity of reaction at any moment is then to be regarded as the difference between two opposite processes. We see also why either of these reactions can be accelerated by the addition of substrate or products respectively.

It will be remembered that Croft Hill showed that the equilibrium in the case of maltase was a genuine one, inasmuch as the same point was reached starting from either end, glucose or the disaccharide. There are also two important researches in which the two opposite velocity-constants, whose ratio gives the equilibrium, have been determined; namely that of Visser on invertase and emulsin, and that of Dietz on lipase, both of which have been already mentioned in other connections. It is necessary now to consider these results in somewhat more detail. We will take first the hydrolysis of salicin by emulsin. As it was shown by Tammann that the action of this enzyme was retarded by the products of its activity, it was advisable to see whether it could be shown to produce salicin from the hydrolytic products, *viz.*, glucose and

saligenin. This was found to take place (164, p. 276). Evidence was also obtained that cane-sugar was similarly formed by invertase from glucose and fructose (164, p. 275).

When the velocity-constants for the hydrolytic process in the two cases are calculated from a formula which takes account of the two opposite reactions, it is found that these constants, just as when the reverse reaction is disregarded, still show a considerable amount of the same regular increase or decrease of the values of the velocity-constants during the progress of the reaction. It is evident, therefore, that some other cause is also present. Visser (164, p. 283) introduces the conception of "intensity" of action of the enzyme, and, by introducing appropriate factors in the formula, it was found that satisfactory regularity of the velocity-constants was obtained, even when the reverse reaction was neglected altogether (164, p. 296). We shall see presently what meaning is to be attached to this "intensity-factor". It is perhaps not surprising that the reverse reaction has comparatively little influence on the rate of hydrolysis in the two instances dealt with, for, since the equilibrium-position is so near to that of complete hydrolysis, the velocity of the synthetic reaction must be very small; some approximate numerical values have been given in Chapter V.

The important researches of Dietz (48) were concerned with the action of pancreatic lipase. In order to avoid complications due to reactions taking place in steps, only univalent alcohols and monobasic acids, with the corresponding esters, were used. All the chief experiments were done with isoamyl alcohol and normal butyric acid. Since the alcohol and water were always in considerable excess, usually somewhere near five molecules of water to eight molecules of alcohol, both the hydrolysis and synthesis could be treated as unimolecular reactions and the calculations thus simplified. In order also to obtain the exact equilibrium the experiments were nearly always carried out from both sides simultaneously, on the one side a solution of ester in water + amyl alcohol was taken and on the other side an equally concentrated solution of butyric acid in amyl alcohol + water.

The first thing to notice is that the equilibrium position, as shown by the final concentration of acid, is the same whether approached from the side of ester or from that of acid (48, pp. 302-306). It was found, moreover, that, when enzyme preparations of different activity, as shown by the velocity-constants, were taken, the equilibrium was the same in all. Similarly, different amounts of the same enzyme preparation were without effect on this point. It may be remarked here that similar results were obtained by Visser with invertase and emulsin.

When experiments were made with different initial concentrations of the substrates, results were obtained which differed from what the law of mass-action demands. The probable reason of this will be given in the next chapter of the present work.

As regards the velocity-constants themselves, it was found that when the water-concentration of the butyric acid solution was low, the ester formation followed the logarithmic law of a simple reaction of the first order as would be expected; the rate of the reverse reaction, the ester hydrolysis, was therefore negligible.

On proceeding to higher concentrations of water, it is seen that, if butyric acid is the starting-point, a considerable part of it is not esterified,

while, if the ester is the starting-point, it is partially hydrolysed. In this way the two velocity-constants can be measured. When this is done by the regular unimolecular formula, constant values in each case are obtained, within the limits of experimental error. The table below is a copy of one of those given by Dietz (48, p. 305); t = time in hours, T = millimols of acid per litre required to neutralise, k_1 = velocity-constant of the synthetic process and k_2 = that of the hydrolytic process. The reactions took place in amyl alcohol containing 8 per cent. of water.

Ester Formation.

t.	T.	k_1.
0·00	197·70	—
1·58	187·40	0·015
4·00	177·60	0·012
7·00	160·80	0·013
10·40	147·00	0·013
15·05	126·50	0·014
24·48	98·51	0·014
31·62	88·06	0·014
96·30	48·51	———
∞	45·90	0·014 in the mean.

Ester Hydrolysis.

t.	T.	k_2.
0·00	0·00	—
2·95	6·86	0·0055
7·20	13·44	0·0049
16·40	24·25	0·0046
23·65	30·23	0·0045
45·07	40·30	0·0047
88·83	44·40	———
∞	45·90	0·0048 in the mean.

Fig. 4 will serve to give a general idea of the course of the change in these experiments. The ordinates represent the concentration of butyric acid and the abscissæ time in hours, so that the upper curve A is that of ester hydrolysis and the lower curve B that of ester formation. Curve C is that which would be given if the reaction went to completion in one direction.

It will be remembered that the equilibrium condition is definable in two ways, either as the ratio of the concentrations of the bodies taking part in it, in the present case ester and acid, or as the ratio of the two opposite velocity-constants. From the data given in the tables above it is possible to obtain values in both ways. Calculated from the relative concentrations, it works out to be 3·3 and from the velocity-constants 3·4, a very satisfactory agreement. It is to be noted, however, that such good agreement was not always found.

A rather considerable time has been spent over the results of Dietz,

since they form an analysis of a fairly simple case and will serve as a foundation on which further complications may be added.

One of these complications is the factor called by Visser the "intensity" of the enzyme, which plays an important part in many reactions, but appears in the case of lipase not to affect the form of the expression for the reaction-velocity. The simplest way in which this factor can be altered is plainly by variations in the concentration of the enzyme added. As we have seen, the rate of action is proportional to this concentration, so that if, during the progress of a reaction, anything happened which lessened the effective concentration of the enzyme, the reaction would be slowed. The combination of enzyme with its products is, in fact, one such circumstance, as it acts by removing enzyme from the sphere of action. But the activity of the enzyme may be affected in other ways without being actually removed. Trypsin, for example, is extraordinarily sensitive to the presence of alkali (hydroxidion); it is practically

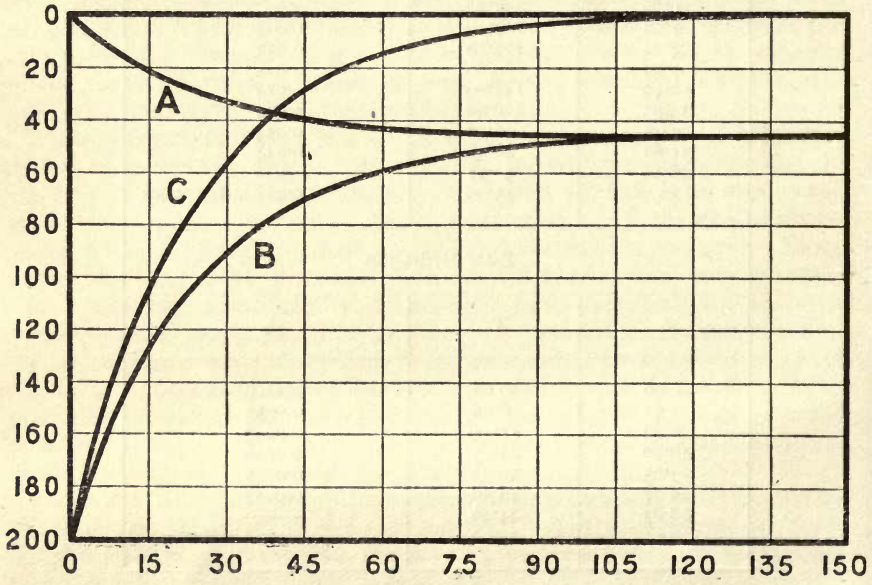

FIG. 4.

inert in acid or neutral solution, but is greatly assisted by the presence of alkali, and up to certain limits in direct ratio to the concentration of this latter as the following numbers show: A series of solutions containing 2·5 per cent. of caseinogen and the concentrations of ammonia shown in the first column were acted on by trypsin for one hour; the rises of conductivity given in the other column were found.

Concentration of Ammonia.	Change.
0·05 normal	1,770 gemmhos
0·03 ,,	1,365 ,,
0·01 ,,	680 ,,

In the hydrolysis of proteins by trypsin, as is well known, a number of amino-acids are set free, and some of these, aspartic and glutamic acids, are fairly strong acids, which will considerably reduce the concentration of hydroxidions in the solution. In fact, as I have recently had occasion to observe, if the initial alkali-content was not very large, say,

2 c.c. of ·880 ammonia to the litre of 10 per cent. caseinogen, the digest becomes actually acid to litmus. This factor must then play an important part in the slowing off of the rate of change in such a case.

In the case of invertase there is some influence at work which has the effect of accelerating the rate of the reaction as it progresses, since the velocity-constants calculated by the logarithmic formula steadily increase, as shown by Victor Henri (78). The explanation seems to lie in some observations by Kullgren (106), who showed that a similar rise in the velocity-constants took place in the inversion of cane-sugar by water at 100°; in this case the rise was due to the production of an acid as a bye-product, which would increase the rate of hydrolysis. It has not been shown as yet whether in the case of invertase there is any such production of acid, although it is not improbable. Since the action of the enzyme is favoured by small amounts of acid, such a production would explain the increase of "intensity" of the enzyme during the reaction.

Phenomena of a similar kind are known in pure chemistry and are called by Ostwald "autocatalysis" (127, ii., 2, p. 263). When an ester is acted on by water the hydrolysis is at first very slow, but as acid is set free the reaction is rapidly accelerated as the acid concentration increases. This is positive autocatalysis. Other cases are known where the catalyst disappears during the reaction, as in the transformation of oxyacids into their respective lactones, with disappearance of the hydrion which was acting as catalyst (84). Such a condition is negative autocatalysis.

Properly speaking, the state of affairs with enzymes is not quite the same as this autocatalysis, where there is production or disappearance of a body which acts of itself as a catalyst. Enzymes produce bodies which are not necessarily themselves catalysts for the reaction, but which act by increasing or decreasing the power of the enzyme itself. The phenomena are sufficiently alike to make it a matter of convenience to use the same name.

The various factors affecting the rate of enzyme-action dealt with up to the present may now be summed up as follows:—

Causes of retardation:—

1. Reversibility.
2. Combination of enzyme with products.
3. Negative autocatalysis. This, with the previous factor, leads to reversible inactivation of the enzyme.
4. Destruction or similar drastic change in the properties of the enzyme, irreversible inactivation.

Causes of acceleration:—

1. Combination between enzyme and substrate when the latter is in relatively large excess. This is strictly to be regarded rather as a retardation of the early stage, leading to a linear portion of the time-curve.
2. Positive autocatalysis.

All of these, with the exception of the first, reversibility, are included in the intensity-factor of Visser. They are of very different relative importance in connection with the various enzymes. In most cases the position of equilibrium is only affected by the reversibility-factor; the

various components making up the intensity-factor do not cause any change in this equilibrium, except in those few cases where it appears that the enzyme itself enters into the components of the equilibrium. When regarded in their influence on the velocity-constant, as calculated by the logarithmic formula of the simple unimolecular reaction, the retarding causes produce a steady fall in the values, while the accelerating causes produce a steady rise, as in the exceptional case of invertase.

In the above treatment of the kinetics of enzyme-action, it has been tacitly assumed that the reactions take place in a homogeneous system, *viz.*, in true solution, whereas enzymes, as we know, are colloids, *i.e.*, suspensions of ultra-microscopic solid particles, so that the systems with which we have to do are heterogeneous. It has, in fact, been shown by Dietz (48, p. 291) that, in the particular case investigated by him, the reaction takes place entirely in the solid enzyme phase. At the same time, the rate of diffusion of the substrate and products is so great, compared to the rate of the reaction itself, that no appreciable error is introduced by disregarding the diffusion-factor. The reaction, in this respect, is similar to that investigated by Loevenherz (113), who found that when various esters are hydrolysed by hydrochloric acid in a heterogeneous system of water and benzene, equilibrium of the reacting bodies is very rapidly established between the two phases. The hydrolysis takes place in the phase in which the velocity is the greater, in this case in the aqueous hydrochloric acid, in the case of lipase in the particles of the enzyme. Whether this applies to all enzyme-actions cannot be stated with certainty as yet; Arrhenius (9, p. 142), however, makes the following statement: "The study of the velocities of reactions in heterogeneous systems indicates that they behave very nearly in the same manner as in homogeneous systems. This observation has often been made concerning the velocity of reactions in heterogeneous systems. It depends on the circumstance that by means of the experimental arrangements the diffusion goes on so rapidly that it does not perturb the chemical processes. If capillary tubes are employed this cannot be said to be the case, and therefore Mett's tubes should not be used for quantitative measurements."

Indirect evidence as to the relatively unimportant part played by diffusion is afforded by the temperature coefficient of enzyme reactions, which is unusually high, as we shall see in the next section. Diffusion, being a physical process, has a very low temperature coefficient.

It may serve to bring together the facts of the previous pages if a brief account be given of the general differential equation which Benjamin Moore (120, p. 83) has put forward for enzyme-actions. We will consider that we are dealing with a reaction which is unimolecular in the hydrolytic direction and bimolecular in the reverse direction, such as invertase on cane-sugar or emulsin on salicin. If the reaction proceeded to completion in the former direction and there were no change in the intensity of the enzyme, the velocity of the reaction would be simply

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \mathrm{K}\,(a - x)$$

where x is the concentration of the products at the time t, K is the velocity-constant and a is the initial concentration of the substrate, so that $a - x$ is the concentration of the substrate at the time t.

We have seen, however, that the reverse reaction cannot always be neglected, so that we must provide for it in any complete formula. In the case before us it is supposed to be bimolecular, and its velocity will be proportional to the products multiplied together. Since they are present in equal amount, instead of using a separate symbol for each, we may put the square of one, say x^2, and the velocity-constant of this reaction will not be the same as the previous one, so that the equation becomes

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = K_1 (a - x) - K_2 x^2$$

where K_1 is the constant of the hydrolytic process and K_2 that of the reverse process.

Further, some factor must be introduced to allow for the change in intensity, positive or negative, which the enzyme undergoes in proportion to the amount of change that has taken place, *i.e.*, in mathematical language, this factor is some function of the concentration of the substrate, which is $a - x$ for the first member and x for the second. Using e as expressing the activity of the enzyme, we may assume as an approximation the factor introduced by Henri, in which the enzyme value is multiplied by a quantity $\frac{x}{a}$, representing the stage at which the reaction has arrived in the one direction and by $\frac{a-x}{a}$ for the reverse reaction. The original $a - x$ must, therefore, be increased or diminished by $e\frac{x}{a}(a - x)$, and similarly for the reverse member. The full equation then becomes

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = K_1 \left(1 \pm e\frac{x}{a}\right)\left(a - x\right) - K_2 \left(1 \pm e\frac{a-x}{a}\right) x^2.$$

As Moore himself says: "This formula is too complicated for application to experimental results on integration, but it includes all the observed experimental cases, that is, it shows a stage when x is small where the reaction is linear, a stage where the reaction is more rapid than the simple logarithmic law demands, as in Henri's experiments, a stage showing a falling off from the logarithmic values, as in the later stages of Armstrong and of Bayliss, a zero stage at the equilibrium-point, a reversed velocity, which also at the very end tends to become linear".

It would lead us too far to test all the various possibilities of this equation, and the reader must be referred to the work of Moore. Suffice it to say that practically many simplifications can be made, e, for example, can be taken as unity without any perceptible error. In any case it is a matter of some satisfaction that reactions which at first sight are so complex as those in which enzymes play a part, can be expressed in a mathematical formula which is not merely empirical, but in which the several factors have a definite experimental foundation.

We now turn our attention to certain factors influencing the velocity of enzyme-action which are capable of definite experimental modification. Such are temperature, initial concentrations of substrate and

of enzyme, and addition of various foreign substances such as electrolytes or antiseptics.

Temperature.—As a general rule chemical reactions are increased by rise of temperature in a way that has been formulated by van't Hoff into the well-known rule that for every rise of 10° the rate of a reaction is about doubled or trebled; that is, if a reaction has a rate represented by 2 at 10°, it will become 4 at 20°, 8 at 30° and so on. Put into the form of a curve, this will rise slowly at first and then with increasing steepness until it rapidly becomes nearly vertical.

Enzymes are no exception to this rule, indeed the temperature coefficient for this class of bodies is frequently high. Tammann found for emulsin between 60° and 70° a value of 7·14, I found for trypsin between 20° and 30° a value of 5·3, that is, it took 5·3 times as long to effect the same amount of change at 20° as at 30°.

This behaviour holds only up to a certain temperature, which varies according to conditions; up to this point raising the temperature increases the rate of change, but a further rise slows the reaction again. This is the phenomenon known as the "*optimum* temperature". Since the property is sometimes regarded as a mysterious one and not shared by inorganic catalysts, it is necessary to examine into its meaning.

Some suggestion as to the explanation is afforded by the experiments of Ernst (57, pp. 476-77) on the action of Bredig's colloidal platinum on a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen gases. This catalytic reaction shows a temperature *optimum* precisely similar to that of enzymes. The property common to both being the colloidal condition, it is natural to suspect that this, with its sensitiveness to heat, is the cause of the phenomenon in question.

An important series of experiments have been made by Frost Blackman and Miss Matthæi (29) on the carbon assimilation of the green leaf, which give a complete explanation of the question at issue. It is to be admitted that the chlorophyll function is only in part an enzyme-action, but the phenomena are so much alike that there can be no reasonable doubt that what applies to the one applies to the other also. The activity of the process is retarded by the injurious effect of temperatures above a certain height, and this by some kind of coagulating action on the colloidal bodies responsible for the reaction. Of what particular nature this destructive action is does not affect the question—the important point being that before complete abolition the process is more or less gradually injured. Here then comes in the importance of the "time-factor," on which Blackman lays much stress, and no doubt correctly. Sachs (141, p. 116) clearly pointed out that the higher the temperature the more quickly a fatal effect ensued, and that short exposure to a very high temperature may not kill, while a prolonged exposure to a slightly lower temperature was fatal. Now the facts shown in the work on carbon dioxide assimilation referred to above are summarised by Blackman as follows:—

(1) At high temperatures (30° and above for the leaves of cherry-laurel) the initial rate of assimilation cannot be maintained, but falls off regularly.

(2) The higher the temperature the more rapid is the rate of falling off.

(3) The falling off at any given temperature is fastest at first and subsequently becomes less rapid.

This falling off makes it experimentally impossible to determine the highest value at any given temperature, since it is obviously necessary to allow the reaction to continue for a certain time in order to obtain

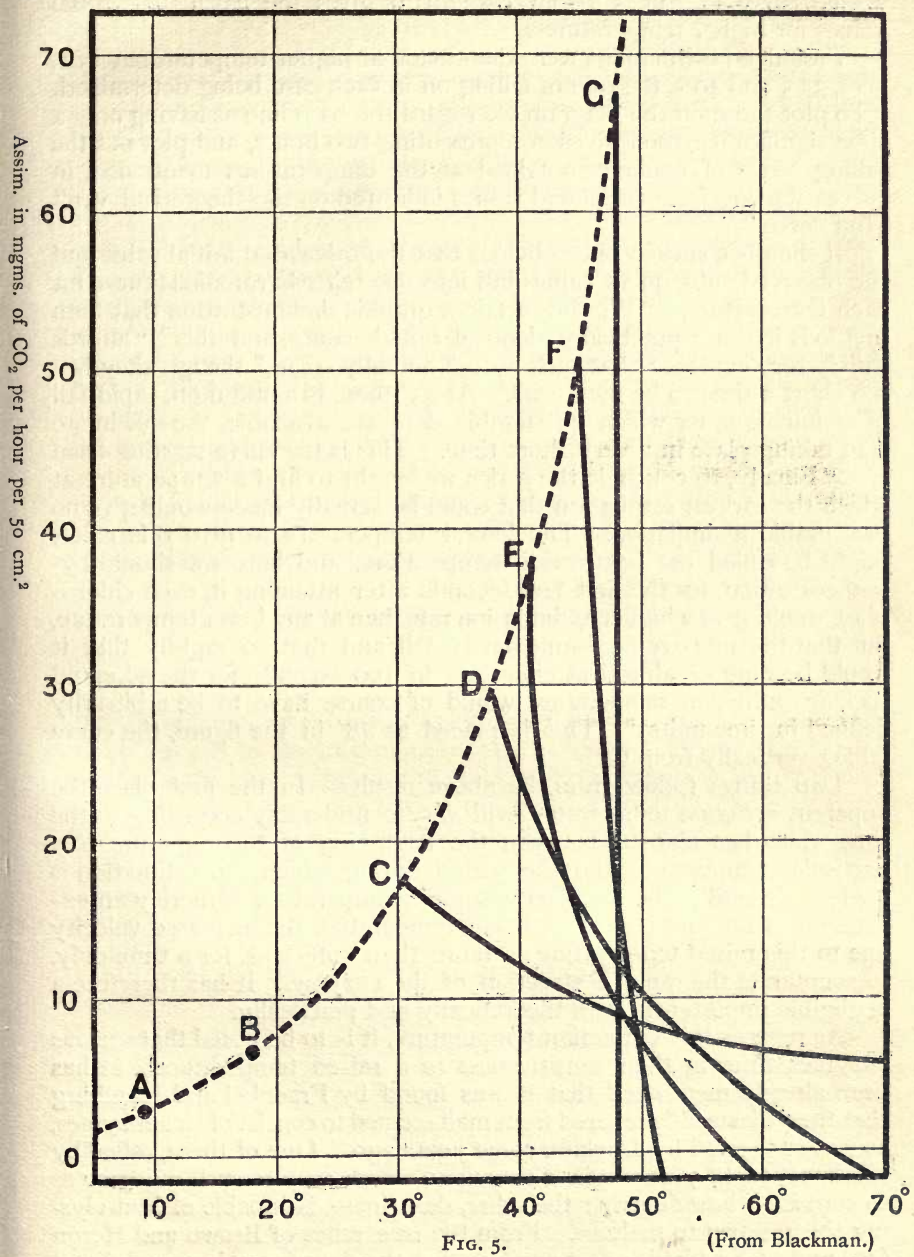

FIG. 5. (From Blackman.)

sufficient change to measure it with any accuracy. We can, however, arrive at this indirectly by forming what may be called the van't Hoff curve on the basis of measurements at lower temperatures. Below 25°

the rate of assimilation does not fall off with successive estimations, so that by estimations at temperatures differing by 10° we can determine the coefficient for 10°. In the case of the cherry-laurel this is 2·1. The dotted curve in Fig. 5 (from Blackman) gives the calculated initial values for higher temperatures.

Prolonged estimations were then made at higher temperatures, *viz.*, 30·5, 37·5 and 40·5, the rate of falling off in each case being determined. "To plot these on the diagram we regard the base line as having only a time significance, each division representing two hours, and plot out the falling series of readings, obtained at the temperatures mentioned, in curves starting from the initial values indicated on the theoretical van't Hoff curve."

It then becomes at once obvious that the calculated initial value and the observed subsequent values fall into one fairly harmonious curve for each temperature. "We thus attain a graphic demonstration that both methods indicate practically identical initial values, and this" "affords satisfactory evidence that such values actually occur," though they last too short a time to be measured. At 45° there is a still more rapid fall of assimilation, for which no suitable data are available, the decline to zero taking place in a very short time. This is the curve starting from F. "Finally, to conclude the series we ought to find a temperature at which the earliest estimation that could be actually made would give no measurable assimilation. The lowest temperature to give this result might be called the 'extinction temperature,' and here we should hypothecate that, for the first few seconds after attaining it, each chloroplast would give a higher assimilation rate than at any lower temperature, but that the rate would immediately fall, and that so rapidly that it would become *nil* almost at once (say in 100 seconds, for the accepted specific extinction temperature would of course have to be arbitrarily defined in time-units)." This is placed at 48° in the figure, the curve falling vertically from G.

Two things follow from the above results. In the first place the apparent *optimum* temperature will vary considerably according to the time which has elapsed between the beginning of the exposure to a particular temperature and the period during which the estimation is made. Secondly, the so-called *optimum* temperature is merely an expression of the fact that at a certain temperature the increased velocity due to this raised temperature is more than sufficient, for a time only, to counteract the rapid destruction of the enzyme. It has therefore a negligible importance, both theoretically and practically.

As regards this extinction temperature, it is to be noted that various enzymes differ in their sensitiveness to a raised temperature. It has been already mentioned that it was found by Fraenkel and Hamburg that the "diastase" prepared from malt seemed to consist of two enzymes, as was suggested by Duclaux some years ago. One of these, called by Duclaux (52, p. 392) amylase, acts upon starch only to such a degree as to convert it into dextrin; the other, dextrinase, is capable of hydrolysing this dextrin to maltose. From the researches of Brown and Heron (40) and of Kjeldahl (98) it appears that the dextrinase is more injured by a temperature of 68° than the amylase is. At least this seems to be the probable explanation of the fact that when starch paste is acted on by "diastase" which has been exposed to a temperature of 68° there is

less maltose and more dextrin formed than when the enzyme has not been so heated. Reference may also be made to the interesting fact that, in the action of diastase on starch, the reaction ends when the composition of the products is 80·8 per cent. maltose and 19·2 per cent. dextrin. This appears to be due to a reverse conversion of maltose into dextrin, for, if the mixture be subjected to the action of a mixture of diastase and yeast, although the yeast is only able to ferment the maltose, the dextrin is found to disappear also (38, p. 105). The reason is that, as the maltose is removed by fermentation, the diastase converts a further quantity of dextrin into maltose, which in its turn is attacked by the maltase of the yeast and then fermented.

Concentration of Substrate.—There is little to be added on this point to what has been already stated. The rate of hydrolysis, by mass-action, should be directly proportional to the concentration, but this actually happens only when the concentration of the enzyme is not too low with respect to that of the substrate. When the latter is in considerable excess, the "combination" of the two bodies produces a state of affairs such that the amount of change is nearly equal with varying concentration of the substrate, as is shown in the table from Frankland Armstrong previously quoted. In some cases, as in that of the action of trypsin on gelatin, the rate of hydrolysis is actually less in the stronger solutions as shown in the following table, which gives in the second column the change of electrical conductivity in twenty-five minutes in solutions of gelatin of the strengths given in the first column:—

Per cent.	Gemmhos.
10	130
8	170
4	240
2	280

This effect is perhaps due to some obscure influence of viscosity. It is not so marked in the case of caseinogen, in which I found the rates of change in the first stages of the reaction to be equal for concentrations of 8 per cent., 5 per cent. and 4 per cent., while that for 10 per cent. was somewhat less than that of 8 per cent.

Concentration of Enzyme.—This is a question of some importance, since certain results obtained from limited observations have been made the basis of estimations of the relative amounts of enzyme present in solutions.

With regard to the inorganic catalysts, it is usually found that the velocity of the reaction is in direct linear proportion to the amount of the catalyst added. This is not, however, a universal rule.

Various conflicting statements have been made as to the law in the case of enzymes. Some observers have found a direct linear proportion, others that high concentrations are relatively less active than lower. Schütz (144) and Borissow have gone so far as to formulate a law according to which the action is proportional to the square root of the concentration.

It will be clear, from what has been stated in the previous pages, that these discrepant rules may all be correct, but that they apply to different relative concentrations of enzyme and substrate, or, in other words, to different stages of the reaction, when this begins with relative excess of substrate.

When the enzyme is in considerably smaller concentration than the substrate, owing to the whole of it being able to enter into effective combination with substrate, the velocity of the reaction is in direct linear proportion to the quantity of enzyme present. As the concentration of the substrate diminishes, another law begins to make its appearance, so that the greater quantities of enzyme have relatively less effect. The so-called "law" of Schütz and Borissow is one particular case of this relationship. What the ratio actually is varies somewhat according to circumstances, but is generally some root less than the square-root. The probable meaning of this exponential formula will be discussed in the next chapter. In an actual case in which the question was investigated, *viz.*, in the action of trypsin on caseinogen, the amounts of the trypsin varied in relative amount from 0·5 to 4. The curves of Fig. 1 (p. 10) were drawn from a part of this experiment, and a glance at the slope of the several curves will show that the relative activity of the different concentrations of the enzyme is quite different at the different stages. For instance, between twenty and forty minutes after the commencement of the reaction the slope (= velocity of change) is clearly steeper in curve 2 than in curve 0·5, whereas between 220 and 240 minutes the reverse is the case. It will be seen also that at the same period of 220 to 240 minutes the curves of 4, 2·5 and 2 have the same slope, so that it might appear that the enzyme-concentration was the same in all three.

If we consider the numerical data from which the curves were constructed, the reaction is seen to come practically to a standstill when the electrical conductivity had risen by 2,200 gemmhos, so that a change of 800 gemmhos may be taken as representing about one-third of the total. In the first table below, the first column gives the relative trypsin-content, the second the number of minutes from the commencement of the reaction until a change of 800 gemmhos had been attained, while the third gives the calculated times on the assumption of a direct linear relationship:—

Trypsin-content.	Time Observed.	Time Calculated.
4	4·5	5
2·5	7·5	8
2	10	10
1	19	20
0·5	37	40

The substrate here was ammonium caseinogenate, in 2·5 per cent. solution. The following is a similar experiment with gelatin in 5 per cent. solution:—

10	2·5	2·67
5	4·8	5·3
2·5	5·9	10·6
1	26·7	26·7
0·5	51	53·4
0·25	90	106·8

The value underlined is obviously an error of experiment. The linear relationship in this early part of the reaction is sufficiently unmistakable.

The next table gives another series of data from the caseinogen experiment, but at a later stage in the reaction, *viz.*, the times taken by

the various concentrations of enzyme to effect a change from 1,300 to 1,800 gemmhos:—

Relative Trypsin-content (c).	Time Taken (t).	Mean Velocity = $\frac{1}{t} \times 1000 = V$.	Specific Activity $= \frac{V}{c}$.	
			Found.	Calculated by Square-root Law.
4	41	24	6	(6)
2·5	48	20·8	8·3	7·6
2	55	18·2	9·1	9·3
1	81	12·4	12·4	12·7
0·5	144	7	14	17·5

A glance at the numbers in the second column shows that the linear relationship no longer holds; in fact, if the mean velocity during the period be calculated, the numbers of the third column, which show that the smaller concentrations are relatively more active than the larger, are obtained. The fact is brought out more definitely if we take the specific activities, *i.e.*, the activity per unit amount of enzyme, as is done in the fourth column. In the last column are given the values given by the Schütz-Borissow law, which in this stage of the reaction gives fairly good results.

The general conclusion to be drawn from these data is that neither the linear nor the exponential law can be practically applied except when direct experiments with corresponding relative concentrations of enzyme and substrate have shown what law holds. The fact that different observers have formulated different laws is to be explained by their having worked with different relative concentrations of enzyme and substrate or at different stages in the reaction, which both practically come to the same thing.

In the case of trypsin given above, if we had taken as our basis of comparison the times taken to effect a change from the commencement to 1,800 gemmhos, it is plain that the law would have been found to be between the linear and the square-root laws. A series of measurements taken with gelatin showed that the ratio was about the 1·5th root, instead of the square-root.

The significance of the exponential law will be discussed in the next chapter.

Action of Electrolytes.—Enzymes being colloids are very sensitive to the action of electrolytes. In some cases indeed they may be said to be inactive in the absence of some one or other of these agents; pepsin is practically inactive without the presence of hydrion, trypsin without hydroxidion. In these cases, therefore, the electrolyte plays the part of a body which we shall learn later to call a co-enzyme.

The action of neutral salts will best be discussed in the next chapter, since it seems to be connected with the facilitation or otherwise of approximation of enzyme and substrate to one another, at least in so far as our present knowledge allows us to form any general view on the question.

In certain cases bodies play the part of specific activators, *e.g.*, asparagine on amylase (54, p. 143).

Antiseptics.—A detailed study of this part of our subject does not enter into the scope of the present book, but on account of its practical value in enabling the distinction to be made between the results of the activity of living cells and that of enzymes a few words are required. Emil Fischer has recommended the use of toluene as most appropriate for this purpose (63). It is chemically inert and has scarcely any destructive action on enzymes, while it prevents the growth of protoplasmic structures and therefore excludes phenomena dependent on this. How far portions of cell-protoplasm can be said to be "killed" by it is another question, which is perhaps, at bottom, an idle one, since there are in all probability numerous stages of complexity between an enzyme like invertase or lipase and actual portions of cells, such a stage being zymase. At the same time, so far as a body exerts catalytic actions, it is found that it obeys ordinary chemical laws, so that we are justified in treating it as an enzyme.

When the phenomena due to growth make their appearance other laws must be taken into consideration.

For a detailed investigation of the action of various antiseptics on trypsin the reader is referred to the work of Kaufmann (96).

It is important to remember that a particular antiseptic may be comparatively harmless to one enzyme and yet very injurious to another. It is impossible in the present state of our knowledge to give any explanation of this fact.

CHAPTER VII.

THE NATURE OF THE COMBINATION BETWEEN ENZYME AND SUBSTRATE.

ABUNDANT evidence has been given to show that, in order that an enzyme may exert its activity, a preliminary combination of some kind between it and the substrate is necessary. Now there are many phenomena, which we have met with in the preceding pages, that assist us in forming a conclusion as to the nature of this combination.

As colloids, enzymes will be particularly prone to form what we have called "adsorption-compounds" (15). Since doubt has recently been expressed by Brailsford Robertson (139) as to the actual existence of phenomena of this kind,[1] it is well to repeat what is meant by the use of the name in the present work. There can be no doubt that there is a condensation of dissolved bodies at the interface between the solvent and the solids suspended in it (Willard Gibbs, 189). Moreover, the degree of this condensation is frequently in unmistakable relation with the chemical configuration of the bodies concerned. How far it is justifiable in the present state of our knowledge to continue in imagination the process until molecular dimensions are reached is another question. In certain cases also phenomena due to "solid solution," with slow diffusion in the solid phase, add themselves on and assist in the production of the exponential law of formation of these adsorption-compounds. Such a case is that treated by Travers (156), *viz.*, the "occlusion" of gases by charcoal.

Davis, also (181), has conclusively shown that, in the adsorption of iodine by carbon, there are two factors, a surface *ad*sorption, which takes place rapidly, and a "solid solution" in, or diffusion into, the substance of, the carbon (*ab*sorption). This latter process is slow and arrives at a state of equilibrium only after many days.

The distinguishing characteristic is just the form of the law which expresses the relation of the composition of the product to the concentration of the bodies forming it; for example, in a concrete case the amount of dye taken up by a stuff is not in direct linear relation to the concentration of the dye, but is relatively greater the lower this concentration is.

If we refer back to the table on p. 57 giving the times taken by different concentrations of trypsin to effect a change from 1,300 to 1,800 gemmhos, it will be seen that the lower concentrations are, weight for weight, more active than the higher ones. If we make the reasonable assumption that the rate of change is in proportion to the amount of "compound" of enzyme and substrate in existence at the time, it will be seen that the result is what would be expected if this combination were of the

[1] See also the criticism of Brailsford Robertson's view by van Slyke (182).

nature of an adsorption-compound, since more trypsin will be in association with the substrate in proportion to the concentration of the enzyme when the latter is lower. The conditions in the first, linear, stage are not inconsistent with this interpretation; in the case of congo-red and paper, when the amount of the dye is very small compared with that of the paper, practically all of the dye is taken up by the paper, since it is necessary to examine the solution in a deep layer in order to detect any colour in it; such an amount would be within the errors of experiment in enzyme work.

The exponential law of activity of enzymes in relation to concentration, of which the square-root law is a particular case, is the mathematical expression of the above facts.

That this state of affairs is due to the colloidal nature of enzymes, and therefore an adsorption phenomenon, is indicated by the fact pointed out by Bredig and M. v. Berneck (35, p. 317) that in the catalysis of hydrogen peroxide by colloidal metals the same kind of law holds, contrary to what obtains in the inversion of cane-sugar by hydrion, where the law of linear proportionality holds.

In the experiments of Dietz (48, p. 314), to which frequent reference has been made, it was found that the velocities of the reactions were proportional to the square-roots of the substrate-concentration. A little consideration will show that this is another aspect of the same exponential relationship dealt with above. It was shown also directly that adsorption did actually occur.

Another fact of importance was made out in these experiments with lipase, showing that the adsorption-compound of enzyme and substrate is the active system. As the enzyme was in the form of minute particles insoluble in the solution of substrate, the system was heterogeneous, and it was shown in the following way that the reaction took place entirely in the solid phase:—

A mixture of amyl alcohol and butyric acid was acted on by the enzyme preparation. The initial value of the acid was equivalent to 6·50 c.c. of barium hydroxide solution. After two hours forty-six minutes the value was 5·28 c.c. From this mixture 20 c.c. were now removed, filtered, and the clear filtrate, now free from enzyme, put again into the thermostat. After a further twenty-three hours forty-six minutes the original solution had arrived at a value of 1·79 c.c. barium hydroxide, while the filtered solution remained constant at 5·30 c.c.

According to the author the process probably takes place in the following manner: "The bodies in the solution diffuse into the ferment-phase and are here caused to interact by the agency of the enzyme. The bodies produced in their turn diffuse out into the solution."

A remarkable fact, which resulted from the experiments of Dietz, appears to have its explanation in adsorption processes of some kind. It has been already made sufficiently clear that the equilibrium arrived at under the action of lipase is a real one. The same point is reached from both sides and it is independent of the amount of catalyst. It is therefore somewhat unexpected to find that, when acids are used as catalysts, the equilibrium is not the same as that with the enzyme. Under similar conditions, in the former case, *i.e.*, in homogeneous system, the equilibrium is reached with 85·5 per cent. of ester, while in the case of the enzyme the value reached is only 75 per cent. As

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pointed out by Dietz, this circumstance appears to present an opportunity of evading the second law of thermodynamics, in that heat can be transformed into work at constant temperature by merely changing acid for enzyme and back again in a cycle. But this is impossible unless energy is in some way supplied to the system by the enzyme itself, in which case it would not be in the same state at the end of the reaction as at the beginning. Experiments made for the purpose of detecting changes in the enzyme during the reaction showed that there were none, so that some obscure surface-energy change must in all probability be the cause of the paradoxical behaviour (48, p. 323).

This theory (Bayliss [15, p. 300]) of the relative proportion of the enzyme combined with the substrate, compared to that in the remainder of the system, will be seen to resemble closely that of Victor Henri (81), although this investigator does not specifically refer to colloidal-complexes or adsorption. It also has possibly some relation to that of Armstrong (6 and 8) as to the association of enzyme with water and sugar.

It must be clearly understood that it is only the preliminary combination of enzyme and substrate that follows the law of adsorption. After close association has taken place, the proper chemical actions, due to the agency of the enzyme, begin to make their appearance. The criticism of Brailsford Robertson (137, p. 375), that adsorption, as a physical process, has a low temperature coefficient, whereas enzyme-action as a whole has the high coefficient of a true chemical reaction, is therefore beside the point.

Objection may be taken to the view here put forward, on the ground that no account seems to be taken of the very specific nature of certain enzymes. There is, however, considerable reason for believing that chemical relationship plays an important part in adsorption phenomena. The "lock-and-key" simile of Fischer may be taken to illustrate this fact, so that it may be said that the chemical configuration of the surfaces of contact, or the molecular shape of the constituents of the surfaces, are potent factors in determining the possibility of intimate contact between them. Using a somewhat gross illustration, a surface formed of rounded elevations, or projecting spikes, cannot come into close contact with a flat one (see also Starling [150, p. 40]).

The relation of enzymes to optically isomeric bodies affords support to the view of shape as a factor in enzyme-action. This may be seen in Fig. 6, which represents very diagrammatically the relation of the glucosides to maltase and emulsin. Since bodies of three dimensions cannot be readily drawn on a plane surface, the postulate must be made that the figures are unable to move out of the plane of the paper. This being so, it will readily be seen that maltase can enter into intimate contact with the α-glucoside but not with the β-glucoside, whereas emulsin, assumed to be the mirror-image of maltase, can approach closely to the latter, but not to the former.

There is, moreover, actual evidence of a certain degree of specificity in more unquestionable cases of adsorption. It was shown by the present author (14, p. 213) that gelatin will take up considerably more acid-fuchsin than it will of congo-red, while filter-paper takes up the same amount of both. Gelatin also takes up calcium salts more readily than potassium salts; the same holds for filter-paper, as shown by

Schönbein (143), who found that, when strips of paper were immersed in solutions of various salts, the height to which calcium and barium rose was less than that to which potassium rose, although the height to which the water rose was the same in each.

Zunz (186) has shown that while some of the proteoses contained in Witte's peptone are precipitated as adsorption-compounds with mastic in the method of Michaelis and Rona (116), others are not. It can scarcely be held that chemical combination takes place between mastic and these proteins.

The view taken in this monograph as to the existence of specific "adsorption-affinity" is contrary to that of Freundlich (175), who states that the amount of adsorption is independent of the nature of the adsorbing agent if equal surfaces be compared. Davis (181), however, has shown that, even to the simple case of carbon and iodine, this generalisation does not apply. In his experiments it was found that the following relative amounts of iodine were left unadsorbed, under the same conditions:—

By cocoa-nut charcoal	1·236
By bone charcoal	0·522
By sugar charcoal	0·799

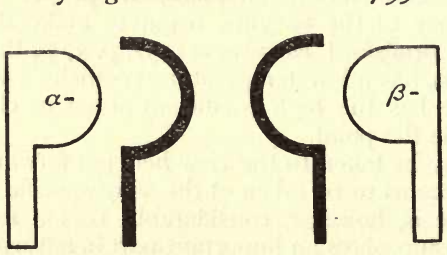

FIG. 6.

This investigator states that his experiments indicate that the surface adsorption is specific, while the diffusion-factor is independent of the nature of the carbon. This fact is significant in connection with what has been said above as to the effect of configuration of surface.

In the case of the enzymes themselves, a definite case of special adsorption-affinity has been brought forward by Hedin (180). Kieselguhr takes up, from a mixture of the two proteolytic enzymes of the spleen, large quantities of the α-protease, leaving the β-protease almost untouched. Charcoal, on the contrary, adsorbs the same proportion of both enzymes. The α-protease, it will be remembered, acts in alkaline solution, the β-protease in acid solution; it is possible that the two bodies have electrical charges of opposite sign and that this circumstance may play a part in the phenomena (Bayliss [14, p. 206]). The results of Michaelis (187) on invertase are also to the point in this connection. This enzyme is adsorbed by certain inert powders, while being left unadsorbed by others.

Aggazzotti (4) has recently published some observations on the action of enzymes as seen in the ultra-microscope. These results, according to the author, give support to the theory of combination between enzyme and substrate, although it must be admitted that their interpre-

tation is not easy. It will be sufficient to state here that, at the end of the reaction, certain large granules, few in number, are left unattacked. These bodies, which are considerably larger than the particles of the enzyme or substrate, are regarded as consisting of a colloidal-complex of enzyme with certain products of the reaction. The changes which occur on first adding the enzyme to the substrate are apparently too complex to enable any conclusions to be drawn whether union of these two bodies took place.

The solubilities of some enzymes indicate a relationship to their respective substrates. As shown by Dietz (48, p. 286), pancreatic tissue can be washed free from trypsin by water, which leaves the lipase behind. Lipase is, however, readily soluble in glycerol, and has been stated to be soluble in ether, or rather in an ethereal extract of liver, probably containing lecithin (Ramond).

Reference has been made in a previous chapter to the effect of electrolytes on adsorption. If the enzyme and substrate are colloids and both with an electric charge of the same sign, it is plain that a certain mutual repulsion will tend to obstruct the formation of a compound, just as in my experiments negative paper takes up very little negative congo-red, but when given an opposite charge by a kation, a large amount of the dye is adsorbed. It seems then very probable that the action of electrolytes on enzymes may in some cases be referable to this circumstance. As yet the question awaits investigation. Trypsin is stated by Victor Henri to be electro-negative[1]; in agreement with this I have found that the amount of it which is taken up by paper is increased by the presence of calcium sulphate (14, p. 226). It is also interesting to note that calcium ions have been shown by Pottevin (136) and by Kanitz (94) to increase the activity of both trypsin and lipase; their action is therefore not specific, but is probably due to their effect on adsorption of substrate by enzyme. This effect of kations on trypsin is not obtained except in very low concentrations of the electrolytes; in higher concentrations they are injurious. This fact is again in complete agreement with the facts of adsorption, as seen in the case of congo-red and paper. Here also if the concentration of the calcium is greater than about 0·005 molar, the dye is precipitated in such a way that the large particles are not taken up by the paper at all; the colloid must not be caused to agglomerate or the adsorption will not take place.

On the whole it seems evident that the action of electrolytes may be due to very various causes in different cases, so that it is impossible to formulate statements of general application. In the next chapter it will be seen that some enzymes are quite inactive without the presence of electrolytes.

Zymoids.—There are some facts which give support to Ehrlich's view that the combining power and fermentative activity are functions of distinct "side-chains". It was found by Korschun (104), when investigating the relations between rennet and its anti-body, that by filtration through porous clay a solution of rennet could be separated into several fractions which, by appropriate dilution of the stronger fractions, could be brought to the same strength as regards combination with the anti-body, but which differed considerably in their power

[1] See Iscovesco (91).

of clotting milk. In other words, the original solution appeared to contain a modified form of the enzyme analogous to Ehrlich's "toxoids"; that is, a part of the enzyme had lost its characteristic action while retaining its power of combining with the anti-body. I have myself (13, p. 271) met with some facts which point to the production of a similar modification of trypsin by warming to 25° for a day or so. I suggested calling these modified enzymes "zymoids". The experiments of Bearn and Cramer (21) are also of interest in this connection.

CHAPTER VIII.

CO-ENZYMES AND ANTI-ENZYMES.

It was noticed by Magnus (115) that, when an extract of liver was subjected to dialysis, the lipolytic power which it originally possessed was gradually lost, but was regained when the dialysate was added. This experiment shows that what may be called the lipoclastic system of the liver consists of more than one component, each of which is separately inactive. The inactive dialysed extract prepared by Magnus was also restored to activity by the addition of boiled liver-extract, or by a similar extract from which proteins had been precipitated by uranyl-acetate. The activating body was soluble in alcohol, but not in ether, and was not present in the ash of liver. The component which did not dialyse was destroyed by boiling and may therefore be regarded in a sense as the enzyme proper, while the dialysable, thermostable, body or bodies may be called the "co-enzyme".

This name "co-enzyme" or "co-ferment" was introduced by Bertrand (26) to express the great increase in the oxidising power of laccase brought about by the addition of manganese salts in minute quantity. It has not, however, been shown that laccase is actually inactive apart from manganese, so that the original use of the name "co-enzyme" was rather in the sense of what we now sometimes call an "accelerator," similar to asparagine in connection with amylase, as already mentioned. Bertrand also applied the name to calcium salts, in the case in which they are apparently necessary for the action of pectase on pectin.

Harden and Young (73) have described a case of well-marked co-enzyme relationship in the alcoholic enzyme of yeast-juice. When yeast-juice, prepared by Buchner's method, is filtered under pressure through a Martin's gelatin filter, the colloids are left behind on the gelatin. The substance so obtained, which would be expected to contain the enzyme, showed itself to be inactive, but when mixed with a portion of the filtrate, which, alone, is equally inactive, it became capable of exciting vigorous fermentation. The co-enzyme found in the filtrate is dialysable and not destroyed by boiling. It disappears from yeast-juice during fermentation and when the juice is allowed to undergo autolysis. The evolution of carbon dioxide from a mixture to which a small amount of co-enzyme has been added soon ceases, but can be renewed by the addition of more co-enzyme. As to the nature of this body our knowledge is as yet incomplete. In view of the fact that soluble inorganic phosphates are able to greatly increase the activity of an ordinary yeast-juice, it was thought that these substances might be the co-enzyme. Experiments showed, however, that the inactive residue could not be brought back to activity by this means,

although subsequent addition of boiled juice was able to do so. Moreover, the boiled autolysed juice does not set up fermentation in a mixture of the inactive residue with glucose, although it contains a large amount of soluble phosphate. Subsequent work (Part III.) showed that both the bodies mentioned are necessary for the activity of zymase. The system is, therefore, a very complex one, two co-enzymes, in fact, being required. Phosphates are necessary, but ineffective apart from the presence, in addition, of another co-enzyme, whose nature is, as yet, unknown. "The cycle of changes which the phosphate undergoes appears to be the following:—

(1) $2C_6H_{12}O_6 + 2Na_2HPO_4 = 2CO_2 + 2C_2H_6O + C_6H_{10}O_4(PO_4Na_2)_2 + 2H_2O$

(2) $C_6H_{10}O_4(PO_4Na_2)_2 + 2H_2O = C_6H_{12}O_6 + 2Na_2HPO_4$."

These changes, of course, take place under the influence of the enzyme-system.

The chemical nature of the lipase co-enzyme is better known than that of zymase. Loevenhart (112) showed that bile-salts possessed all the properties of the co-enzyme, while v. Fürth and Schütz (68) have shown that sodium cholate is as active as sodium glycocholate.

Magnus (183) also showed that synthetic bile-salts have the same action as the natural bodies. The importance of this fact is that it shows that, unlike the action of phosphate on yeast-juice, no additional co-enzyme is required, such as might possibly be contained in preparations of the natural bile-salts.

One more instance may be referred to. It has been shown by Bierry, Giaja and V. Henri (28) that if pancreatic juice be dialysed, it loses its power of acting upon starch or maltose. The addition of certain electrolytes restores this activity. By testing various salts it was shown that the electro-negative ion is the only potent one, and among these ions the chlorine or bromine ion is the essential one. Thus, sodium and potassium chlorides are active, while the sulphates are inactive.

There are also, in contradistinction to the bodies treated of above, certain other bodies which hinder the action of enzymes in a specific manner. These "anti-enzymes" are similar to those anti-toxins produced by the injection of toxins into the living organism, so that we may regard enzymes as belonging to that class of bodies which act in minute amounts and which Ehrlich (55) considers to be similar to food-stuffs and taken up by the protoplasm of living cells in some intimate connection. The other class of bodies act by the physical or chemical characters of their molecules and do not give rise to anti-bodies when injected. Such bodies are of small molecular weight, and in this class are included drugs in general and the chemical messengers or hormones (20, p. 668, and 149).

Several anti-enzymes are normally present in the blood, such as anti-trypsin and anti-rennet, others can be produced by the injection of enzymes subcutaneously; by this latter means anti-bodies to the following enzymes have been obtained—lipase, emulsin, amylase, pepsin, papain and urease.

A very interesting anti-trypsin was found by Weinland (165) in intestinal worms, which seems to have the function of protecting them from the action of the pancreatic juice. The properties of this body

were investigated by J. M. Hamill (71). It is not destroyed by boiling in neutral or acid solutions; but, if made even faintly alkaline, its anti-action is immediately destroyed on boiling. It is soluble in alcohol of strengths below 85 per cent., by stronger alcohol it is precipitated uninjured. It dialyses readily through colloid membranes.

In the course of the reaction anti-trypsin slowly disappears, as was shown by Dastre (46), for the maceration of intestinal worms and which I have been able to confirm. If a mixture of trypsin and caseinogen, to which sufficient worm-extract has been added to inhibit the reaction, be allowed to remain in the thermostat for a few days, it will be found that the enzyme gradually becomes active again.

If raw serum or egg-albumin containing anti-trypsin be acted upon by trypsin, it will be found that for some hours no effect will be produced, but that gradually the trypsin begins to regain its activity and

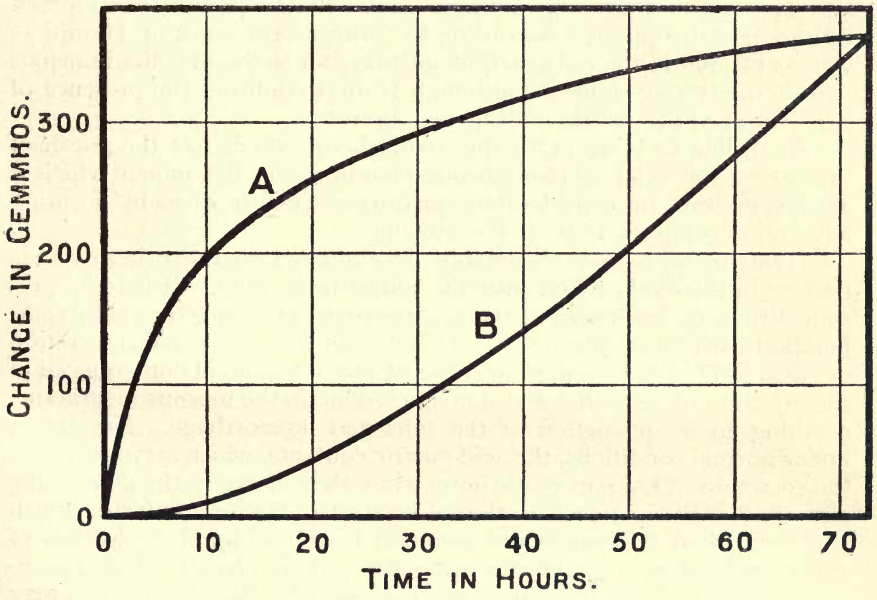

FIG. 7.

in such a way that the curve of rate of change is convex to the axis of abscissæ, showing that the recovery of the enzyme is a gradual one and the effect is not to be ascribed to difficulty of attack on the part of the protein itself. Fig. 7 shows the phenomenon in question. The upper curve is that of egg-white, diluted with nine times its volume of water, and, after heating to 100°, in order to destroy the anti-body, acted on by trypsin. The lower curve is that of a similar mixture, but in which the egg-white had not been heated. The anti-body was at first intact in this latter solution, but it gradually disappeared, so that finally the same amount of change had taken place in both the digests.

The manner in which enzymes are rendered inactive by combination with their anti-bodies is regarded by Hedin (179) as being similar to that shown by him to obtain in the case of the taking up of trypsin by charcoal, that is, by an adsorption-process. The two characteristic

phenomena common to the two cases are (1) it is impossible to take up all the trypsin out of a solution even by excess of the anti-body, whether it be charcoal or that present in serum, and (2) relatively more trypsin is neutralised by small amounts of the anti-body than by larger. The process, as far as charcoal is concerned, consists of two stages, the enzyme is first taken up in such a form that it is readily, in great part, given up again to caseinogen; the second stage appears to be a kind of fixation, so that it is not so given up. There is no sharp line of demarcation between the two processes, and it seems possible that the second stage may be similar to the diffusion of iodine into the interior of the carbon in the researches of Davis (181). The specific nature of certain anti-bodies is no argument against the view of Hedin, as has been shown in the previous chapter.

Weinland (166) has stated that anti-pepsin exists in the gastric mucous membrane and anti-trypsin in that of the intestine; these bodies are supposed to confer upon these tissues their immunity from attack by the digestive juices. According to some recent work of Hamill as well as of myself, the existence of anti-trypsin in the intestinal mucous membrane is very doubtful, although Hamill confirms the presence of anti-pepsin in the gastric mucous membrane.

According to Klug (176) the actual body which has the power of protecting the cells of the mucous membrane is the mucin which is always present in considerable quantity. This it does by forming adsorption-compounds with the enzymes.

If this be so, it may reasonably be extended to the other colloids present in the foods taken into the alimentary canal. It is to be presumed that, by mass-action, the greater part of the enzymes is in combination with these substances. It is certain that, if a copious secretion of pancreatic juice is poured into the empty intestine in consequence of the injection of secretin, great damage is done to the mucous membrane, resulting in desquamation of the cells and hæmorrhage. No doubt, under normal conditions, the acid gastric contents, which serve to excite the secretion of the pancreatic juice, when they arrive in the duodenum, also effect a partial neutralisation of its strong alkalinity, a factor which is absent when the pancreatic secretion is excited by the injection of ready-made secretin. At the same time, it is obvious that the reaction must remain sufficiently alkaline in order that the trypsin may exert its action. It seems probable, then, that the injurious action of pancreatic juice on the empty intestine may be, in part, due to the absence of food-stuffs, which would take up the enzyme.

CHAPTER IX.

ZYMOGENS.

THE relation between enzyme and co-enzyme is a reversible one. This can be seen by considering the case of the liver lipase. The extracts were at first active, became inactive on dialysis, but regained activity on the addition of bile-salts.

The relation of inactive zymogen to active enzyme is an irreversible one. Since all enzymes are produced by the agency of living protoplasm, it is evident that at some stages in their formation they must be devoid of the catalytic properties of the fully formed enzyme. This stage is called a "zymogen" when it can be obtained free from the cells in which it was formed and can be converted by purely chemical means into the active enzyme. When this change has taken place the new body cannot, as far as we know, be reconverted into the zymogen.

The trypsin of the pancreatic juice is actually secreted in the form of a zymogen and is poured into the duodenum in this state, as has been shown by the present author in conjunction with Starling (17, p. 347). In the duodenum it meets with the enzyme, enterokinase, and is converted by this into active trypsin. Except for the fact of its being devoid of proteoclastic power, trypsinogen, as we may call the zymogen of trypsin, has properties very like those of the enzyme.

Recent experiments of Delezenne (47) show that inactive pancreatic juice can be activated by calcium salts as well as by enterokinase. The amount of calcium present in the juice as secreted is sufficient to bring about very slow activation, but the process can be considerably accelerated by adding more calcium. These results have been confirmed by Miss B. Ayrton, in the Physiological Laboratory of University College, London, but not yet published.

The first preparations containing a zymogen in solution were those of Langley and Edkins (108). These solutions contained a substance, pepsinogen, which, on treatment with hydrochloric acid, was converted into active pepsin. The proof of the existence of a zymogen in extracts containing pepsin itself was rendered possible by the discovery of Langley (107, p. 253) that pepsin is much more rapidly destroyed by alkali than is pepsinogen. The latter is very rapidly converted into pepsin by acids; at 20° all or nearly all the pepsinogen present in an aqueous extract of a cat's gastric mucous membrane may be converted into pepsin in sixty seconds by 0·1 per cent. hydrochloric acid.

Pepsinogen has been prepared by Glaessner (69) in what appears to have been a nearly pure solution by a method of which the following is an outline. The mucous membrane of pigs' stomachs was allowed to autolyse in alkaline solution at 40° for some weeks. Mucin was

removed by precipitation with acetic acid and proteins with uranyl-acetate; this last precipitate carried down with it, in a state of adsorption, the pepsinogen. By extracting the mass with a large amount of dilute sodium carbonate the greater part of the zymogen passed into solution again. The process of uranyl-acetate precipitation and extraction of precipitate with dilute sodium carbonate was repeated and the final extracts concentrated at 40°.

The body so obtained gave only two of the protein reactions and these very faintly, namely, a fine precipitate with mercuric salts and with phosphotungstic acid. It must therefore be of non-protein nature, and, if so, the pepsin formed from it by the action of acid can scarcely be a protein.

The physical properties of the substance are interesting. It was found to be slightly lævo-rotatory. We have already seen reason to suppose that enzymes are optically active. It is adsorbed by kieselguhr, alumina and fibrin, but not by starch or sand. These facts serve to confirm the view of the specific nature of adsorption, since it can scarcely be held that pepsinogen has a greater chemical affinity for kieselguhr than it has for sand, although it would be expected to have more "affinity" for fibrin than for starch.

It is of interest to notice the close similarity between the enzyme and its zymogen, at all events in the present case. As Glaessner remarks, the conversion by very dilute mineral acids with such smoothness, rapidity and completeness is only explicable on the assumption of a very simple chemical process.

CHAPTER X.

OXIDATION-PROCESSES AND CERTAIN COMPLEX SYSTEMS.

INSTANCES have been given in the preceding pages where a system consisting only of enzyme and substrate undergoes no perceptible change. The addition of a third body is requisite in order that a reaction may take place. Such cases were those of lipase and zymase with their respective co-enzymes, as also pepsin and trypsin with acid and alkali respectively.

A different case is that of the various enzymes concerned in the mechanism of oxidation. It will probably have been noticed that the enzyme-processes dealt with in any detail up to the present were all hydrolytic actions. The intimate mechanism of the oxidation enzymes is still comparatively little understood, and until the work of Bach and Chodat (11) it was involved in much confusion. Although the point of view of these investigators may not as yet explain all the phenomena met with in this difficult subject, it is by far the most satisfactory hypothesis hitherto propounded.

In the consideration of the subject there are three distinct sets of bodies to be taken into account. These are :—

1. Organic peroxides, including hydrogen peroxide.
2. Peroxydases.
3. Catalases.

The two last only are of enzyme nature. They both decompose hydrogen peroxide with formation of water and oxygen, but while the peroxydase separates oxygen in the active state, probably as atomic oxygen, the catalase separates it as molecular or relatively inactive oxygen. The catalase must therefore attack two molecules of the peroxide simultaneously, since only one atom of oxygen is afforded by each molecule of peroxide. A second point of difference is that while catalase acts only on hydrogen peroxide, the peroxydases act on various organic peroxides; at any rate their general action can only be explained on this hypothesis, and Bach and Chodat have shown that ethyl-hydrogen peroxide is split by them.

Now molecular oxygen is incapable of acting upon the greater number of bodies, such as glucose, lactic acid or uric acid, which are oxidised in the organism, so that, although catalase is very widespread, its function is somewhat problematic, except in the case of the green plant, as we shall see later. It is possible that hydrogen peroxide may be produced as a bye-product of oxidations in the animal tissues; if so, it is necessary that it should be forthwith destroyed, owing to its toxic action on living protoplasm.

A peroxydase alone, without the presence of a peroxide, is obviously of no use as an oxidising agent, so that the system of peroxide and

peroxydase is the active combination. This system is, in fact, what is sometimes called an "oxydase". In order that the process of oxidation may be continuous, the peroxide component of the system must be capable of re-formation by taking up oxygen again. Accordingly we find that the oxidation of guaiacum by potatoes, for example, does not take place in the absence of oxygen.

An instructive experiment consists in the use of peroxydase, such as that to be obtained from the root of the horse-radish, instead of an inorganic catalyst in Fenton's reaction. If a mixture of lactic acid and hydrogen peroxide be taken, it will be found that oxidation proceeds with extreme slowness. A trace of ferrous sulphate will enormously accelerate the reaction. If the peroxydase of horse-radish be added instead of the iron salt, it is found that the reaction is accelerated in the same way. In other words, peroxydase is capable of taking the part of the iron salt in this reaction. This fact, in conjunction with that of the powerful effect of the addition of manganese or iron to various "oxydases," and the apparently universal occurrence of one or other of these bodies in the ash of these enzymes, suggests that the latter may be a means of rendering iron, manganese or a similar body in an oxidisable system into an extremely active state. This suggestion remains as yet, however, in the region of pure hypothesis.

The chief difficulty in the universal application of the Bach-Chodat theory lies in the very specific nature of many oxydases. Laccase was shown by Bertrand (25) to act upon hydroquinone or pyrogallol with great facility, but not at all on resorcinol or phloroglucinol. Moreover, it does not act upon tyrosine, which is readily oxidised by another enzyme "tyrosinase". A satisfactory explanation of these facts is wanting. It would be expected that active oxygen liberated by the agency of a peroxydase would be able to effect oxidations indiscriminately, and the experiment on lactic acid and hydrogen peroxide cited above seems to indicate that the specificity lies in the peroxide component of the oxydase system. If this be so, it is possible that there is some intimate relationship necessary between the structure of the peroxide and the substrate in order that close connection may be possible so that the active oxygen may enter into immediate union with the latter.

There is an interesting class of chemical reactions called by Ostwald (128) "coupled reactions," which it seems probable will have to be taken into account in oxidation, and perhaps also in other processes in the organism. An instance of such a reaction is the following: When a solution of sodium arsenite is shaken with air no oxidation takes place; sodium sulphite similarly treated is rapidly oxidised; if a mixture of the two be shaken with air *both* salts are oxidised. In some way or other oxygen is activated in the process. It is convenient to give names to reactions in which a slow reaction is accelerated by the existence of a simultaneous rapid reaction between one of the reacting bodies of the former reaction and a third body. The rapid reaction is called the "primary reaction," and that which is induced by the presence of the former is called the "secondary reaction". The body common to both is called the "actor"; the second substance in the primary reaction is the "inductor"; and the corresponding body in the secondary reaction is the "acceptor". In the example given, oxygen is the actor, sodium sulphite the inductor, and sodium arsenite

the acceptor. Certain catalytic reactions already referred to may be described from this point of view; the catalysis by ferrous sulphate of the oxidation of hydriodic acid by hydrogen peroxide is one of these. In this process, the reaction $FeSO_4 + H_2O_2$ is the primary reaction, $H_2O_2 + HI$ is the secondary reaction, H_2O_2 is the actor, $FeSO_4$ the inductor and HI is the acceptor. For further information on this question, as yet imperfectly worked out, the reader is referred to Mellor's *Chemical Statics and Dynamics.*

In connection with the properties of catalase, the researches of Usher and Priestly (158) on the chlorophyll-function are of interest. According to these observers, this system consists of three partners—the protoplasm of the chloroplast, the chlorophyll itself and a catalase. By means of the pigment, acting as both optical and chemical sensitiser, light-energy is employed to cause reaction between carbon dioxide and water in such a manner that formaldehyde and hydrogen peroxide are formed. Both of these bodies are toxic, and, if allowed to accumulate, the reaction soon comes to an end. The formaldehyde is, however, rapidly polymerised by the protoplasm of the chloroplast and the hydrogen peroxide is split into oxygen and water by the catalase. We see thus why the reaction as a whole does not occur in non-living preparations or extracts of green leaves. Formaldehyde is indeed produced in the presence of chloroform on exposure to light of appropriate arrangements of the pigment, but since no polymerisation occurs, the chlorophyll is destroyed by it and the reaction comes to an end. Production of hydrogen peroxide and formaldehyde also takes place in leaves killed by boiling, and in this case, since the enzyme, catalase, is destroyed, as well as the protoplasm, the hydrogen peroxide also contributes to the destruction of the chlorophyll. It is well to mention that some doubt has recently been thrown on these results by Ewart (61).

The factors concerned in the coagulation of the blood form another extraordinarily complex system. According to Morawitz (122, 123), there exists in circulating blood a body, thrombogen, which can be converted by a thrombokinase, present in all tissues,[1] including the formed elements of the blood, into a precursor of the enzyme which acts upon fibrinogen to form fibrin. This precursor, or prothrombase, is changed into the active thrombase by calcium ions. According to Nolf (124), the process consists essentially in the interaction of three colloidal proteins in the presence of calcium ions. These proteins are thrombogen, thrombozyme and fibrinogen. Both fibrin and thrombase consist of all three of these colloids, but in different proportion; fibrin contains fibrinogen in excess, a circumstance which accounts for its insolubility. Thrombozyme is a proteolytic enzyme, the process of coagulation being the first stage of its action, while the well-known fibrinolysis is the second stage. This brief statement gives but a mere abstract of this important work which is, in the main, a confirmation and extension of that of Wooldridge. For further details the original papers must be consulted.

Finally, under the heading of this chapter, may be mentioned those fairly numerous cases where more than one enzyme is requisite to effect a particular change. Here the enzymes act one after the other and the products of the one become the substrate of the next. According to

[1] With respect to the properties of tissue-extracts, the paper of Pekelharing (188) should be consulted.

Buchner and Meisenheimer (42), the system responsible for the alcoholic fermentation of sugar consists of two distinct enzymes; the first converts sugar into lactic acid, and is the zymase proper; it has also been prepared by these investigators from the lactic acid bacillus. The second enzyme, lactacidase, in turn acts upon the lactic acid, converting it into alcohol and carbon dioxide.

Another interesting case is that of the enzymatic hydrolysis of gentianose, as investigated by Bourquelot (31) and Hérissey (32). This sugar is a tri-hexose, consisting of two molecules of glucose and one of fructose. If it be subjected to the action of invertase the fructose is split off, leaving the two molecules of glucose still united as a bi-hexose. Emulsin, or rather the mixture of enzymes obtained from the bitter-almond, is able now to split this bi-hexose into its components. The importance of this case is that if a mixture of emulsin and invertase had been added at once the gentianose would have been completely hydrolysed; the juice of *Aspergillus* appears to contain such a mixture, which might have been mistaken for a single enzyme but for the previous experiments. It has recently been shown by Armstrong and Horton (178) that the "emulsin" of the almond contains three distinct enzymes. These are, a lactase, a β-glucase, which causes the hydrolysis of β-glucosides, such as salicin, while the third is an enzyme which separates glucose from amygdalin, leaving Fischer's amygdonitrile-glucoside.

Raffinose, a tri-hexose consisting of glucose, fructose and galactose, as shown by Fischer and Lindner (66), requires the action of a series of enzymes to effect its complete hydrolysis. According to Armstrong and Glover (177), when hydrolysed by acids or invertase, it is resolved into fructose and melibiose, while the lactase of "emulsin" converts it into cane-sugar and galactose, as first shown by Neuberg (189).

For the conversion of starch into glucose, as we have already seen, three enzymes are necessary. Amylase transforms it into dextrins, which are then converted by the dextrinase of Duclaux into maltose, which is finally changed to glucose by maltase.

The same kind of phenomena are observed in the series of proteoclastic enzymes met with by the food as it traverses the alimentary canal. Erepsin acts upon the products of the action of trypsin, while this latter enzyme itself acts upon the products of peptic digestion.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

THE living organism is enabled by the use of enzymes to bring about, under ordinary conditions of temperature and moderate concentrations of acid or alkali, many chemical reactions which would otherwise require a high temperature or powerful reagents.

A careful study of these enzymes shows that they obey the usual laws of catalytic phenomena. Certain deviations from the behaviour of most inorganic catalysts are found to depend upon the colloidal nature of enzymes, so that the reactions take place in a heterogeneous medium and the various phenomena depending upon surface action come markedly into play.

As they are sensitive to heat and more or less rapidly destroyed by it, they show the phenomenon of a so-called *optimun* temperature. This destruction by heat is, in all probability, due to their organic colloidal nature.

So far as we know, the reactions catalysed by enzymes are reversible in nature, but since, as investigated *in vitro*, they take place in presence of excess of water, the equilibrium position is usually very near the stage of complete hydrolysis. Owing to this reversible character of the reactions, it follows that enzymes have synthetic action.

Reasons are given for the belief that the "compound" of enzyme and substrate, generally regarded as the preliminary to action, is of the nature of a colloidal adsorption-compound.

The existence of a relation of this kind explains the exponential form of the law correlating the concentration of enzyme with its activity.

Autocatalysis, positive and negative, plays a considerable part in the changes of activity of an enzyme during the course of its action. These changes of "activity" are the main factors in the deviations of the form of the equation for the velocity of reaction from the simple unimolecular formula, when the reaction, as is usually the case, takes place in presence of excess of water.

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES.

NOTE A.

In illustration of the great activity of the organic agents or enzymes which effect these changes, as compared with inorganic hydrolytic agents, the following experiment of Frankland Armstrong (5, iv., p. 533) may be quoted : A preparation of lactase was found to hydrolyse about one-fourth of the milk-sugar contained in a 5 per cent. solution in one hour at 35°, whereas a twice normal hydrochloric acid required, at the same temperature, about five weeks to effect the same amount of hydrolysis.

NOTE B.

It should be mentioned that this formation of amino-acids (Lawrow [109, p. 516]) is regarded by some as being due to the presence of autolytic enzyme in ordinary pepsin preparations. This does not seem very probable, however, in view of the difficulty of obtaining solutions of autolytic enzymes, owing to their intracellular nature. It is desirable that the experiments be repeated with natural gastric juice. It will be remembered that Fischer and Abderhalden (65, p. 55) found that the pancreatin "Rhenania" which appears to be dried pancreas, was able to hydrolyse leucyl-alanine to some degree, whereas fresh pancreatic juice was unable to do so. Dried pancreas would probably contain a small amount of autolytic enzyme.

NOTE C.

The following remarks by van't Hoff (90, p. 12) will be read with interest: "The theory of chemical equilibrium may also find its application here (*i.e.*, in organic chemistry) and indeed has already done so; on account of the great variety of compounds and the inertia of reaction, however, appropriate choice of material is not easy. It is, perhaps, on this account, of some value to direct attention to the extremely noteworthy ferment- or enzyme-actions, which have shown themselves admirable for this purpose, as recent investigations demonstrate. On the one hand, Fischer (63) found that, under the action of ferments, organic changes are directed into determinate paths, a fact which completely excludes complication by variety of forms. On the other hand, the recent researches of Tammann (152-154), Duclaux (51) and especially of Hill (86) cannot be explained without the introduction of considerations of equilibrium. It was pointed out by Tammann that, under the action of emulsin, amygdalin is only partially split and that this hydrolysis proceeds further if the products are removed. Perhaps if he had added a further amount of products of hydrolysis, he might have succeeded in synthesising amygdalin. Duclaux put forward transformation formulæ, which again suggest the attainment of an equilibrium, and Hill seems to have effected the synthesis of maltose from glucose by means of a yeast enzyme. Unless a ferment undergoes alteration of some kind during its period of activity, it follows, on theoretical grounds, that a condition of equilibrium and not one of total change must be brought about, and that therefore the opposite reaction must be induced. We are indeed justified in asking the question, whether (by application of the theory of equilibrium), under the influence of zymase and by exceeding a certain limiting opposing pressure of carbon dioxide, glucose might not be formed from alcohol and carbon dioxide, and moreover whether trypsin may not be able, under conditions prescribed by the theory of equilibrium, to form protein from the products of the hydrolysis which it brings about under other conditions."

NOTE D.

Enzymes do not differ from chemical catalysts of known composition, in their behaviour towards optical isomers, as has been shown recently by Bredig and Fajans (34). The d- and l-camphor-carboxylic acids in solution in acetophenone slowly decompose with evolution of CO_2. This reaction is catalysed by bases. When an optically inactive base is used, both acids are decomposed at equal rates, but if an optically active base, such as nicotine, be used, it is found that the d-acid is acted upon at a rate which is 17 per cent. faster than that at which the other acid is decomposed. As ordinary nicotine is lævo-rotatory, it would be of much interest to know whether the dextro-rotatory nicotine would decompose the l-acid faster than the d-acid.

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